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THE MEANING AND PURPOSE OF SECONDARY EDUCATION.

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To a man who passes somewhat late in life from the teaching of a particular group of topics to the survey of methods and systems of teaching as a whole, it is inevitable that many words and phrases which are employed in pedagogic discussion should prove somewhat perplexing.

One such term, whose use has greatly puzzled me, is "secondary education." This has been made the subject of essays by the most distinguished exponents of pedagogy. Several journals are avowedly devoted to this theme and to no other. Yet it is not defined in the dictionaries; nor does it seem to me to be at all adequately defined anywhere else. In the essays and in the reviews I have found many propositions concerning the subject; but it is far from being made plain which of these propositions, if any, is to be regarded as the definition, and which are to be regarded as what the old-fashioned books on logic would have called real propositions. I do not wish to seem over-critical, or to lay an undue stress on conformity to any particular canon of logic; but I think I may say, without danger of being misunderstood, that I should have derived much greater profit from the very interesting treatment of this subject in works like those of Professor Hanus, if they had had more

of the character of legal arguments and less of that of orations—in other words, if the definition of terms had been formulated more plainly. And I believe that the same difficulty which I have felt will be shared by many others who in a discussion like this find it difficult to follow brilliant thoughts unless they are expressed with what may seem to their exponents an unnecessary degree of precision.

But how comes it that a term should have crept into such general use as "secondary education" undoubtedly has, without having any accredited definition or, as far as I can discern, any well-settled meaning?

The history of its use I believe to be this: Toward the close of the eighteenth century the French system of education was investigated, and to some degree arranged, by that almost miraculous organizer Turgot. He formulated a plan for primary, secondary, and higher schools, which was perfectly intelligible, and which for the time being suited the needs of the French nation extremely well. France thus obtained during the early part of the nineteenth century a school system which, as far as symmetry of organization went, was more complete than that which existed in any part of Germany at the same period, and vastly more so than could be seen in England or the United States. Secondary education, to a Frenchman, meant the kind of instruction which was given, and which found its appropriate place, in the secondary schools of that system. Although there was a certain diversity of type and purpose among these schools, the difference was not great enough, nor were the varying types numerous enough, to prevent the word from having an absolutely definite meaning to the Frenchman of that day. Accordingly, we find in French dictionaries, like Littré, definitions of the term *enseignement secondaire*, as meaning instruction of the type which was actually given in the French *lycée*—in general, our old-fashioned classical course.

This use of the term "secondary" did not extend to Germany, at least in any general or universal way. The German *Volksschule* was, at least in many districts, so much more advanced than the French primary school that there was no

opportunity to import the French classification of studies ready-made; and the Germans were wise enough to see that the mere transfer of the French term to a situation where the facts were different would only result in confusion. But in England, and more especially in America, the French words, "secondary schools" and "secondary education," were transferred bodily, without too close inquiry as to their appropriateness, or even as to their precise meaning when thus transferred. "Secondary school" meant the second school which most boys or girls attended; "secondary education" meant the teaching in any one of such schools, actual or ideal, which any writer chose to regard as typical.

So long as we were using the concrete term, "secondary schools," this transfer and this confusion did very little harm. A man who was talking about secondary schools was by the very nature of the case compelled to indicate what schools he meant. If he was talking about high schools, he sooner or later had to say high schools; if he was talking about preparatory schools, he sooner or later had to say preparatory schools. But this is not true when we come to the use of the abstract term, "secondary education." A man who is dealing with abstractions can go on leaving his idea or concept undefined until some one insists specifically upon accuracy; and if he happens to be talking with a man whose idea or concept is different from his own, he will convey more or less erroneous ideas to the other man's mind. I am almost tempted to add that the more brilliant the speaker is the greater are the chances of his doing harm; for the hearer may be so attracted by the beauty of the argument as to mistake the emotion of pleasure for the intellectual process of understanding and assent.

All this renders it imperative that we should define our terms. But this matter of a definition is not so easy as it looks.

There is no one group of academies so much more important than all others that we can take their course of study as an example of what secondary education *is*; no group so much more effective than the others that it furnishes a universally accepted model of what secondary education *ought* to be.

Under these circumstances some persons believe that our wisest plan would be to abandon the use of the term "secondary education" altogether. But this term has found its way so fully into the public mind that I doubt whether it is in our power, at this stage of the discussion, to abandon it if we would. I shall try my best to frame a definition which avoids the difficulties just named, and see if it will tend toward greater clearness in discussion. I do not know whether it is the best which can be adopted, but it is the best I have been able to find, and it is one which at least gives an intelligible result in proper, logical form—a thing which in these days is all too often neglected.

Secondary education, under the definition which I would suggest, includes all those studies which are regarded by the public as too far advanced to be a part of that compulsory education which it strives to furnish all its citizens, and which are at the same time not sufficiently specialized in their purpose or aim to be considered part of the technical preparation of different groups of citizens for their several callings in life. It is distinguished on the one hand from primary education by being less universal. It is distinguished on the other hand from technical education in being general rather than specific in its object; in fitting the student to be a better man rather than a more expert producer. Speaking roughly, primary education aims to secure the necessary level of general intelligence; technical education aims to secure the necessary level of professional intelligence; secondary education aims at something in excess of these necessary minima.

There are two or three points in this definition which will at once attract notice, and may suggest unfavorable criticism. It will be noted, in the first place, that the line between primary and secondary education is based on a public judgment concerning the character of studies, rather than on any essential difference in the studies themselves. Primary education is what the public considers it necessary to require of all; secondary education is that for which it provides facilities, but which it does not consider absolutely requisite. While appreciating the force

of this criticism, I cannot help believing that this public judgment is the only tenable ground on which we can attempt to decide which studies shall be regarded as primary in the conception of our school system as a whole. Any study is primary as compared with the more advanced sections of the same subject. Elementary law is primary as compared with the study of corporations or of evidence. Yet no man would say that elementary law was a subject of primary education. Multiplication is a secondary study as compared with addition; yet every one would include multiplication among the subjects of primary instruction. The instant you abandon the purely relative sense of these two words, and attempt to decide how we shall apply them in a discussion, we are, I believe, forced to take the broad standard of public opinion as to their universal necessity, or else be left with no standard at all.

Another objection, and one which will be more universally felt, is that this definition does not make the line between secondary education and other forms of education coincide with a line which can be drawn between one group of schools and any other. Of that which is here defined as secondary education, no inconsiderable part has always been given in the college; and some part is today being given in the primary schools. It would be impossible, I should be told, to arrange a single group of educational institutions which should do the whole of the work here outlined, and confine themselves thereto.

To this fault, if it be a fault, I plead guilty at the outset. But I am inclined to think that it is a merit instead of a fault.

It seems to me that the current use of the term "secondary education," as applied to the teaching in secondary schools of America, has involved serious practical fallacies. The words "secondary schools" mean schools for boys or girls of a certain age and previous degree of training. The words "secondary education" mean—or at any rate seem to mean—teaching of a certain kind. The assumption that the limits of secondary education should coincide with the domain of the secondary school means, in plain English, that all boys and girls of a certain age or previous degree of training should have a certain kind of

teaching, and that no boys or girls in other parts of our school system should have any of that kind of teaching. I do not mean that every man who uses the words "secondary education" consciously takes this position. It would perhaps be better if he did, for then he could be forced to argue the matter out and give the reasons for his view. I mean that the form of the phrase "secondary education" unconsciously leads each man to this view and commits him to some of its consequences without his really knowing it.

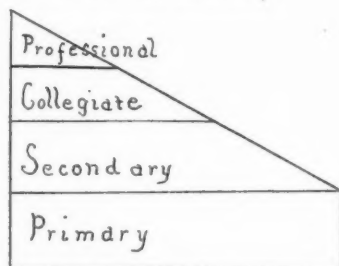
That every boy, on reaching the age of twelve or thirteen, should receive an education of the same type, seems to me, to say the least, a very doubtful proposition. I think that there are some boys with whom it is desirable that the technical education should follow the primary education just as speedily as possible; boys with whom the stimulus of earning a living is the one educational force which can be made very effective. To say that we should meet the needs of these boys if we only had a varied secondary education arranged for their several aptitudes seems to me really an evasion of the point. If you so extend the meaning of secondary education as to include bricklaying, you can appeal to some boys who are interested in bricklaying and in nothing else; but you have so widened the term "secondary education" as to make it little more than an unmeaning symbol.

The changes which will be made in our conception of the educational system if we adopt the definition suggested, classifying teaching according to its quality instead of according to the age of the pupils, may be best illustrated by a diagram.

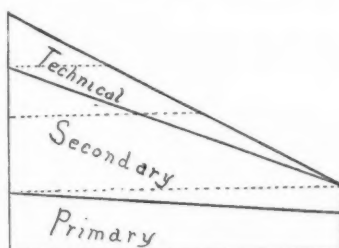
Under our present conceptions, we regard all boys or girls as being under primary education until they have finished the grammar school; and then as passing successively into secondary, collegiate, and professional schools, in constantly diminishing numbers. But, as has been already said, a part of the education in our grammar schools is really of the same general type as high-school teaching. A part of our high-school work—our commercial course, for instance—is of the nature of professional training. This is even more conspicuously true of our colleges.

A course like that of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology is professional from the outset; that of most of our scientific schools is professional after the close of freshman year. It therefore seems more logical to classify our instruction as in Diagram II, which indicates the varying ages at which professional or technical instruction begins. This shows at a glance how our grammar schools include some secondary education in their courses; how our so-called secondary schools combine a large amount of secondary education with a moderate amount of tech-

I. PRESENT CONCEPTION.



II. PROPOSED CONCEPTION.



nical training; and how our colleges continue the secondary education of the student, but with a yet larger infusion of the technical element. I believe that Diagram II and the conception connected therewith show the relation between the kinds of studies and the courses of different pupils far more correctly and instructively than Diagram I.

But this change of conception has, I conceive, another and more practical value. It enables us to adapt our high-school courses more intelligently to the needs of different sections of the community—an adaptation which was greatly hampered by the notion that all boys between the ages of twelve and seventeen should have a certain separate treatment, to be known as secondary education. A minority of these boys are going to college afterwards; a majority are not. If they all ought to have the same kind of education, that must be the kind of education which the majority needs. The logical consequence is that the general high-school course, which is arranged for the need of

that large group of students who are not going any farther, should be accepted as a preparation for a collegiate course on the part of those students who are going to spend—we used to say four years more; but now it is three, or two, and next year it may be one. Now, the kind of education that is generally demanded for the pupils who are not going to college is, I think, fairly characterized by the author of the article on “Secondary Education in a Democratic Community” as one marked by scope and flexibility as its primary characteristics, with intensiveness as an incidental one. But for the pupil who is going to college intensiveness is the important characteristic of this period of preparatory study, compared with which other things are of minor importance—the kind of intensiveness which results in precision. If he has this, scope and flexibility will come afterwards. If he does not have this in his high-school course, the effort to superadd it in his college course is likely to prove a failure, and the boy, in general, had better not go to college. Professional motives are the only ones which will bring back his lost habits of hard work. It has always seemed to me, as a result of my observation, that by the time boys reach thirteen or fourteen years of age we want to make differences of types of instruction suited not only to differences of taste in the individual—to this, within limits, every one would agree—but also to different lengths of time which are likely to intervene between the period of primary education and the period of technical education. For the boy who wants no interval at all, I would make his high-school education frankly technical, and not call it secondary. For a boy whose tastes or resources fit him only for a short period of secondary study, I would arrange a high-school course which should give him the range of knowledge and power which he needs, as far as he can get it in the time allowed, and would then send him to a technical school. But I would not claim that this three or four years’ course was as good a preparation for college as some other kind of course which costs the same time and effort; nor would I always encourage a boy who had taken this course to go to college before beginning his professional studies. On the contrary, I believe that when a boy has reached the stage where his course

consists chiefly of descriptive science, history, and other things which have been chosen for their interest rather than for their disciplinary value, it is time for him to begin taking up technical studies which will have the interest of a life work to back them, just as soon as possible. It is with the courses of a school as with those of a dinner—when we have reached the sweets, it is time to stop eating and go to work. As far as my experience goes, I think that indefinite repetition of years of this pleasant sort of study leaves a boy less fitted to grapple with serious problems of handling books at the end than he was at the beginning. Therefore, for that group of boys or girls which takes the years between thirteen and seventeen as a time of preparation for college it is, I think, wise to adjust our high-school courses with the clear understanding that they are furnishing only part of the secondary education, instead of the whole of it. In this way—and, as far as my experience goes, in this way only—can we prepare the pupils to get from the time spent at college the intellectual as well as the social benefit which belongs thereto.

In carrying out this policy, we are simply applying to education a principle which is universally applied in matters of everyday practical activity. We understand that the method of construction which is right for a three-story building is wrong for the lower half of a six-story building. We do not claim that because three-story buildings are more numerous than six-story buildings, all should be made to conform to a common type. The man with whom these three stories constitute the whole of the edifice will probably spend a larger share of his money on the decorative parts, and he will certainly be compelled to furnish a roof and cornice to give completeness to the whole. The man who uses these stories as a foundation will be relieved from some of this expense, but he will be under the necessity of making his structure more solid in every way; of calculating his pressures more accurately; of using his money with a primary view to the weight which must be supported afterward. So it is with a preparatory school course if its function is well and truly conceived. It must not sacrifice strength to attractiveness, even in the degree in which it would be proper in a course for some

other boys of the same age thus to sacrifice strength. Whatever else it does or does not do, it must give the habit of precision of thought, on which alone advanced studies can be safely based.

Precision—this is a word which sounds somewhat unfamiliar to modern pedagogic discussion. It is a quality which in the old times was doubtless somewhat overrated, and in the reaction from this error we have perhaps come correspondingly to under-rate it; even as in our modern society the excessive precision of manner of the olden time has given place to a looseness which represents quite as serious an error in the opposite direction. The old type of classical and mathematical training, wherever it was well exemplified, unquestionably gave this quality. It sacrificed other valuable things in so doing. It sometimes repressed individuality; but it did not encourage that confusion between things half known and things fully known, which is the bane of some of our modern educators and their pupils. The American preparatory school of the olden time did what the French secondary education did—it taught people the distinction between subject and predicate, between definition and real proposition, between assumption and proof. The study of Euclid might not lead the pupils to geometrical results by such a short road as Chauvenet or Wentworth; but it taught those pupils to reason with severe regard to logic. If the object is mathematical acquirement, the modern books are better. If the object is clear thinking, the older method had inestimable advantages. Abraham Lincoln used to say that he laid the foundation of all his legal success by the study of Euclid's *Elements* of Geometry. I doubt whether any man could say the same thing of modern mathematical text-books. In like manner, the classics do not furnish so easy a road to literary knowledge as modern languages; but the abandonment of classical training has led the rising generation to loosen their hold on the distinction between subject and predicate, and to forget the necessity of defining terms accurately before you group them into propositions.

This paper is not an argument for the retention of Greek, nor even a discussion of the relative advantages of classical educa-

tion as compared with others. To one who observes the signs of the times it seems probable that Greek will gradually come to have less relative importance in our secondary education than it does at present. But it may not be out of place to point out that many of the reasons which are urged against the study of Greek actually make for its retention. The time spent on fine grammatical distinctions is very far from being wasted. The very difficulties of the Greek language are due to the accuracy with which those who wrote it grasped certain important matters of thought, and thereby compelled modern students of the language to follow them—or else confess ignorance of the subject. I believe that we shall gradually devise methods of teaching other subjects which will enable them to be substituted for Greek as a training in precision. But until this result is attained, the substitution of large acquirements in modern languages for the old-fashioned drill in ancient ones is likely to prove a loss instead of a gain—at any rate to the student who is able to take a long course of secondary education instead of a short one.

I may be pardoned a personal reminiscence in connection with the importance of grammatical accuracy. For many years I took a sort of oversight of the training of the debaters who were to represent Yale in its contests with Harvard and Princeton. So far as the general standard of debating form went, I may say frankly that I think that during most of these years Harvard and Princeton both had the advantage of Yale; and they complained at times that the Yale men won on technicalities in the argument which had been suggested to them from outside. The suggestion that was really made to them from outside, first, last, and all the time, was that they should distinguish between subject and predicate; should insist on definitions of terms; should, in short, know what they were talking about before they began to talk about it. When the question was presented to us by another college, "Resolved, that the United States should definitively adopt the gold standard and not enter into a bimetallic league, even if England, France, and Germany were prepared to do so," the first thing on which the Yale debaters (who took the negative) were instructed to make up their minds was the

meaning of the words "definitively adopt." They found that definitive adoption, under the Constitution of the United States, could only be compassed by certain specific courses of action; and they proved successively that each of these courses was bad. To the appeal that the question should be argued on general ethical grounds they turned a deaf ear. The question stood there for discussion; and they—on the whole rightly—refused to discuss something else. This sounded like a technicality. It was really, I believe, a proper insistence on exactness of thought; and I regard it as a blemish on our college education—at Yale as well as elsewhere—that it should be necessary to point this fact out, instead of leaving men to see it for themselves. I do not think that matters were always like this. As I look back on my own freshman year in college, I am astonished to see how much of the teaching was teaching in precision of thought. In my memory of the geometry class I hear the oft-repeated question, "That is right; why?" In rhetoric it was always, "Are you assuming this, or are you proving it?" The Greek class has the same story: "*ἐν δ' αὐτῇ ἔην εἰκὺα θεῶσιν*." Among them was she herself like unto the goddesses.' What is the real predicate in that line?"

I am not arguing that this is the only thing to be taught. I am very far from wishing to exclude broad considerations, and especially ethical ones, from the mind of the teacher or the pupil. But I believe that in education exactitude is a more important ethical factor than most of the men of the present day are ready to admit. When I am told that mathematics as a study has little or no ethical value, I review in my mind the careers of various men whom I have met, not only in college work but as newspaper editor and as labor commissioner; and I can say with candor that every dangerous Socialist is weak in arithmetic, and a very large fraction of the careers ruined by appropriation of others' property may be traced to the same source. I do not wish to generalize too broadly, or to seem to indicate that there is only one kind of education which is worth anything. Anything which stimulates the pupil's interest has great value. Anything which provides for diversity of taste and power has gre

value. Anything which reaches positive results by a short road instead of a long one has great value. But I believe that all these points are being at present fully appreciated, and that—for college preparation at any rate—the important thing to be insisted upon at the present day is the teaching of accuracy of thought. It is of course theoretically possible that too much attention may be directed to that end, to the exclusion of all others; but as far as concerns the work of boys who are preparing for college, I believe the practical dangers lie all in the other direction. And, to come back to our theme, I believe that looseness in the use of the term "secondary education" is at once an illustration of this habit of inaccuracy and a powerful means toward its perpetuation in quarters where it can do harm.

HOW CAN WE ADAPT OUR SYSTEM OF EDUCATION TO PRESENT NEEDS?

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In this paper I can attempt only to present a physiological and biological standpoint, from which, as it seems to me, the subject may wisely be viewed.

Socrates used to say that, if a thing is good, it must be good for something. What is the use of an education? A system which would enable the child and the man to avoid or to cope with the dangers of life, to meet its emergencies, and to grasp its opportunities, would evidently be very useful. It must also produce good neighbors and citizens, for the interests of the state and the race are paramount.

But the dangers, emergencies, and opportunities are not the same in different times and places. The German system may not exactly suit our needs. Time also changes all things. In the seventeenth century New England consisted of isolated farms and villages dotting a wilderness. Educated men were rare, books were scarce and expensive. Illiteracy and barbarism were real and pressing dangers. The stress and strain of life bore heaviest on the comparatively tough muscular system. Life was simple. Opportunities were comparatively few.

Nine-tenths of the child's education consisted in home training. For physical exercise, manual training, and nature study, the farm gave abundant opportunity. The single term, consisting of but a few weeks, was best devoted entirely to the study of books.

In all these respects life has changed completely. We have been compelled to modify our system of education to meet entirely new conditions, dangers, emergencies, and opportunities.

Mr. Huxley once said that Nature had framed her own system of education, and had made it compulsory. The child *grows* and *develops* into manhood through a series of stages;

childhood, youth, adolescence. Each stage is characterized by the appearance, or by the rapid growth or development of certain organs. The business of the individual at each stage is to promote the growth or development of these organs by suitable exercise. This exercise satisfies a craving in the child, and appears as play. Our business as teachers is primarily to promote these processes, and to train the fully developed organs. We cannot cause growth or development or greatly change their direction.

To oppose Nature unnecessarily always results in harm. Not to secure her for our ally, wherever this is possible, is surely folly, if not sin. Let us ask, therefore, What would Nature have us do with the individual at each stage? If her suggestions are sound and wise, we will do well to heed and accept them. I wish to begin with early stages, for here her aims are clear, unmistakable, and evidently wise.

What would Nature have the baby do? Just what he does naturally, of course. He can eat, sleep, and grow. If we were wise, which we usually are not, we should expect nothing more from him.

But the baby squirms and wriggles. The child naturally likes to run, jump, dig, and climb. The development of the muscular system follows hard after that of the digestive. But the muscles develop and crave exercise in a certain order: first, those of trunk, shoulder, and thigh; then those of arm and leg; last of all, those of the fingers. First the child sits upright, then he walks and runs, and climbs trees; finally the boy uses his fingers to curve the ball.

Why does Nature urge the child to exercise so persistently the heavy, clumsy, fundamental muscles? Being large, they contain most of the muscular tissue of the body. Their exercise stimulates and ensures the development of heart and lungs, the rapid circulation of warm, well oxygenated blood in all the organs, and vigorous, healthy growth in every part. We should never forget that a healthy, vigorous, digestive system is essential to life, and that a tough muscular system is the foundation of health.

But each group of voluntary muscles is controlled by a special center in the brain. There are old, fundamental brain centers for the muscles of trunk, thigh, and shoulder. There are younger, more delicate, brain centers for the muscles of our fingers. According to good physiologists these old brain centers are precisely those which bear the heavy strains of life, and which resist nervous prostration and hysteria. When Nature urges the child to exercise the heavy fundamental muscles, and thus to develop their brain centers, she is fitting him to endure without nervous breakdown the strain and wear of our modern American life.

We see that the latter evolved portions and uses of any organ or system may be finer and higher than the older. But the old, fundamental uses and portions are essential to life itself.

The fundamental use of the brain is evident in the child. It is a switch board to ensure that every sensory stimulus shall give rise to a motor impulse, calling forth the muscular action suited to the emergency. A successful life is in the last analysis a series of suitable responses to stimuli. The child is receiving his first lessons in this great art. There can be no more important training.

What mental power does Nature regard as fundamental? Which one does she select as essential, worthy of development at the earliest possible period in the child's life? It is not the power of logical thought, for this develops almost last of all. It is remarkable how young a baby can become very angry. Feeling is older than thought in the individual and in the race. Feelings, as President Hall has well remarked, are racial; opinions, individual. Our deepest feelings are almost always true, our clearest and best logical thought may be true in part. The vigor of our actions is proportional to the depth and intensity of our emotions. "Out of the heart are the issues of life." Here again Nature has proved herself very wise.

In boyhood also, usually somewhat suddenly, arises the demand for fair play and the outcry against the cheating of playfellows, which frequently results in a declaration of war. This instinct or feeling seems to form almost the whole of his

system of ethics at this time. We must take heed lest we despise it. It is the germ of something vastly higher and better.

At ten or eleven the girl is growing faster than the boy. In the fourteenth year her increase in height and weight decreases rapidly. This decrease is Nature's red lantern of warning. The girl is rapidly becoming a woman. During a period of so rapid and so great change the organism is sensitive, often irritable. Occupation is needed, but overwork is harmful; fret and worry are dangerous. This would hardly seem to be the best time to begin new and difficult studies, to double the already too frequent examinations, to appeal by every means to her ambition and fear of failure. Balls and parties lasting into the wee small hours of the morning would not seem to furnish the best rest and refreshment for her exhausted nerves. Either the college, or the preparatory school, or the parents, or better, all three, *must* find some way to lighten the burden which is crushing our girls. Otherwise, after a few generations, we shall be educating mostly French Canadians or Chinese.

From this point we will confine our attention to the boy. I dare not attempt to analyze a so fascinating and complex being as the student in the woman's college. Now the boy is approaching maturity, and goes away to school. I hope you will pardon me for still calling him a boy. At the age of sixteen the most conversions take place. "This," says President Hall, "is a serious and solemn epoch, and ought to be fittingly signalized. Morality now needs religion. . . . For the strongest motives, natural and supernatural, are needed for the regulation of the new impulses, passions, desires, half-insights, ambitions, etc., which come to the American temperament so suddenly before the methods of self-regulation can become established and operative. (See Stanley Hall, *Moral and Religious Training of Children and Adolescents. Pedagogical Seminary*, Vol. 1, p. 209.) Nature urges church and school to cultivate a strong and healthy religion which can dominate and steady the life through the stormy period which soon follows, if it has not already begun.

The muscles are well grown, and are clamoring for exercise.

The boy craves and digests large amounts of food. A flood of motor energy is produced, which must find an outlet. It is no time to fasten down the safety-valve. The healthy boy rejoices in his ability to overcome resistance, to endure hardship and pain. He often inflicts pain ignorantly and thoughtlessly, rarely cruelly. If the higher powers are stunted or belated, he may become a dangerous savage or a brute, controlled by the lowest passions, as we see in the gangs of our cities.

His plays are now all group games, where he must subordinate his own wishes and interests to those of his side. "Team-play" is the great word. Loyalty to class, fraternity, or set is often a higher virtue in his eyes than fair play and entire honesty. This group-interest is the germ of civic virtue and of patriotism.

Hitherto his thoughts and ambitions may not have strayed far beyond his home. Now the world beckons—a world as fresh, fair and good as on the morning of creation, as it should be still to each one of us. A sense of increased power urges him outward, as a strong swimmer longs to meet the waves. He is sure that even the shady side of life cannot be as bad as it is painted. He must know life, men, the world. At any cost he will eat of the fruit of the tree of knowledge of good and evil.

Endless possibilities open before him, and he is conscious of the power to realize them. Remember that he has not yet been taught by experience or saddened by failure. His hope and courage are boundless. Nothing is impossible to him. He sees his parents and teachers fettered by all kinds of limitations plodding in a humdrum round. His life shall be larger and freer. He will gird himself, and go whither he will.

He feels that his elders do not understand him any better than an ant can enter into the life of an eagle. Often he is right in this feeling. He becomes reticent, and does not tell us of his plans and hopes.

He is rebellious against authority, impatient of discipline and restraint, and resents counsel and advice. He appears, and often is, conceited, "bumptious," obstinate, headstrong, lawless. At the same time he longs for approbation.

While essentially optimistic, slight reverses and disappointments plunge him into despair. He has yet to learn that tides turn and pendula swing. He cannot bide his time and wait. He lives in the present. One swallow makes a summer for him; and if it is cloudy today, the sun will never shine again.

He dreams. Visions rise before him so grand that his mind cannot grasp or outline them, much less can he describe or define them. They are hazy, indistinct, felt, rather than seen,

in part are prophecies, and in part
Are longings wild and vain.

They are like glimpses of mountains on a far horizon where eternal rock cannot be distinguished from drifting mist. Will the mountain emerge? or will the mist hide all and leave him without landmark or guide? This is a sphinx-question.

It is the period of storm and stress, of courage and hope, of doubt and despair. Life is a mixture of the strangest contradictions. The boy at school or college may well say: "My name is legion, for we are many." I do not wonder that we often fail to understand him. Yet how can we expect him to be other than he is?

It is not pleasant to listen to the first efforts of a young cockerel trying to crow. His first notes are neither long, clear, nor musical. But, if you could stop his squawking, he would never learn to crow. Old chanticleer, meantime, does not give him much advice, but shows him now and then what can be done in that line.

I have touched only a few of the salient characters of this marvelous adolescent period, when life is at flood-tide. We must hasten to ask, What is Nature trying to do with the boy at this age? and, How can we help her and him?

Nature would have the boy possess an athletic brain. She does not care merely for brawn. But to mere and pure learning, or even to intellectual training and development, she does not give the supreme importance which it holds in many of our college courses, not to say curricula. I pass this by, not as unessential or unimportant, but because you are all fully aware of its value.

In athletics she is training him to a life of strenuous action, to habits of clear and accurate perception, and of wise, prompt action. She is teaching him to accept and bear responsibility. Athletics demand a quick recognition of conditions, immediate decision, unhesitating, instant execution. Certainly this is a most important part of education. Physical training already confers many priceless benefits. It will form a larger part of future educational systems.

Life in school and college has an inestimable value in developing social instincts and civic virtues. We have not yet begun to realize the possibilities of school and college as experiments in the line of an ideal community.

Nature is putting the boy in the path which leads to wisdom by awakening hunger for the knowledge of the meaning of life, of its best methods, its opportunities and dangers.

But, above all, Nature would have the dim and hazy ideal become clear and distinct. She would have it dominate his life. It alone can make him a hero, and prevent him from sinking into base and cowardly philistinism. This is the grand opportunity, the awful danger, of school and college life. For the life of the man in all that concerns morals, religion, aims, and ideals, will remain much the same as it is in school and college. It very rarely rises higher.

By athletics and social life, by even a dim and hazy vision of grand ideals, Nature is slowly training the boy to use his powers, to have them all well in hand. She has already developed and trained the powers separately. Now she correlates them, so that properly combined they may produce the greatest results. Slowly she teaches the boy self-control, developing thus that grand virtue which the Greeks called *Engkrateia*, for which we unfortunately have no word, but which means inward strength and endurance.

Finally, and most important of all, throughout this period Nature would have the boy's life dominated, his passions controlled, his fevers calmed, by a profound, healthy, powerful religious thought and feeling.

Is not Nature's system fairly well suited to train the boy to

grasp the opportunities and to meet the dangers of life? Is she not doing her part to fit him to be a useful citizen of these United States and of the kingdom of God here and now?

Nature is very busy with the boy at this time. Her required courses are many, and each one of them is of vital importance. The Greeks knew well the importance of harmony, perspective, proportion. *Meden agan*, too much of nothing, was their excellent motto. We teachers must somehow correlate all these courses, and that without detriment to the increase of learning and intellectual power, whose value I would not underestimate. We must instruct, guide, steady, and control the boy who is restive under restraint, impatient of authority, and who has little respect for our theories. We must prove to him that our knowledge bears directly on life or he will continue to care little for it.

Above all, we must help him to see clearly the form and substance in his dreams. He has ideals, but he sees them "as in a glass darkly." They are sentiments rather than visions. There is great danger that they will fade out into objects of sentimental regret, if not completely forgotten. We must help him to give them form and outline, distinct meaning, and definite relations to daily life and work. We must show him that what now seems to him so near that he can easily grasp it, is really far away, attainable only by long, hard, and weary struggle. Yet we must not abate one whit his ardor, courage, faith, and hope. We must train him to patience and endurance. He will listen to us just so long and so far as he finds us in sympathy with him and his highest aims, and sees in our work the realization of his ideals.

Socrates once said that his work was that of a midwife to bring great thoughts to birth. A Socratic thought was almost always an ideal of life. He pretended to teach nothing. But before the eyes of Alcibiades he called up such visions of truth, nobility, and righteousness that even the young profligate was stung to tears and hated himself. Socrates' positive teachings were few, though mighty. But he imparted life. Virtue went forth from him into the listener. This is the final test.

Dr. Martineau once said that we should never have a proper system of education until we had a properly written "Lives of the

Saints." The "Lives of the Saints," vertebrated, muscular, saints with red blood and warm hearts; "the apostolic succession of great souls," to borrow Heine's expression; these are the proper study of adolescents.

Do you remember how Sargeant What's-his-name in Kipling's poem trained the Egyptian fellahin to fight as they did at Firkeh? He put himself into every man of them. This "everlasting miracle" of the contagion of a great and powerful life is the secret and essence of teaching, as it is the end of evolution.

Are we in danger of forgetting that "the philosopher must first of all be a man?" Are we using our departments too much as means of instructing specialists in our own chosen branch of knowledge, too little as means of true, broad education and development? Do our requirements and examinations for entrance to college inspire the teacher in the preparatory school to follow Nature's suggestions? Or do they almost compel him to devote his time and energy to "coaching" the boy to answer a special set of somewhat narrow and useless questions? Is such work the best aid to growth and development of either teacher or student? In our ceaseless discussion of, and tinkering with the curriculum do we assign sufficient importance to the aims and methods of the teacher, as well as to the content of the study abstractly considered? In the use of remedial measures do we sometimes treat symptoms instead of causes of disease, and seek to cure fevers by applying lotions to the skin? Is the college furnishing a proper training to fit the man of business to use aright his vast opportunities and power, and to make him feel his great responsibility? In brief, is the work of the preparatory school and college even now completely adapted to train the student to cope with the dangers, to meet the emergencies, and to grasp the opportunities of life?

If we can develop and train a race of men and women possessing good digestion; a tough muscular system and sound health; a steady, firm nervous system which can bear the stress and strain, and meet the emergencies of life; a warm heart and deep feeling stimulating a powerful will set on righteousness; a life governed by high ideals—if we can train such men and women,

we may well be proud of our work. Until we can accomplish this we have not completely attained. For only such a race will fulfil the vision of the prophet that "A man shall be as a hiding-place from the wind, and a covert from the tempest; as rivers of water in a dry place, as the shadow of a great rock in a weary land."

DISCUSSION.

PROFESSOR WALTER BALLOU JACOBS, of Brown University: I have been delighted and inspired by these words, as I know each and every one of us has been, and I for one want to thank Professor Tyler for this inspiration. It has been a remarkably clear presentation of the wonders of human growth and development, and an eloquent appeal to us to follow in the path of nature. It calls for firm muscles, steady nerves, and high ideals; and it shows us that the only way to reach these is by acting through and in accordance with the laws of nature. There is always something inspiring in this appeal to nature. The old nature love for woods and fields and running brooks wells up within us—the old nature reverence that made our Aryan forefathers worship Agni, the fire, and made the dwellers on the Nile worship its mysterious waters, and made the old Greeks worship the clear blue of the vaulted sky. This is nature, the mother of us all—our mother. Rest and truth are to be found in her bosom. Rousseau struck this note and all Europe listened, from the Pyrenees to the banks of the Neva. Even Kant, in his distant lonely home on the sand dunes of the Baltic, forgot his daily walk, absorbed in the revelations which this thought presented; and so that most illogical of all writers charmed that most logical of all philosophers.

Evolution and modern biology have shed light upon the problems of youth and adolescence, and brought out truths that Kant and Rousseau could never have dreamed of. The wondrous second birth—the birth of man as man and of woman as woman, the birth of hopes and ambitions, of fears and despairs—all this the modern study has revealed to us in a way that has made clear the amazing reach of all this wisdom and thought about nature. And yet, in spite of all this new light and the fulness of meaning that has been given, this second preaching of the gospel of nature has very many of the same characteristics that the first preaching of the gospel of nature had from the lips of Rousseau. It is vague, indefinite, but glorious and many-colored; like the light of the morning sun before the sunrise, big in

promise of light, but lacking in clearness of outline. It lifts us up, inspires us, puts us above the firm ground of reason and lifts us into a halo of emotions and possibilities.

There is another view, too, in which the two are alike. This modern view, as the old view, is inclined to be onesided. It overemphasizes feeling and willing, in education, at the expense of knowing. And yet, whatever we may say of the plasticity of man on the side of feeling and willing, the experience of generations has proved to us that there is no part of man so plastic, so easily to be shaped, and so ready to retain that shape as the intellect; and it is in this realm we must realize that education has gained so much ground that is valuable to the individual and valuable to the race. So then, in accepting this new gospel, we can not, it seems to me, accept it as that which shall overthrow and put down the old; but rather we shall accept it as a new testament which shall be bound in the same volume with the old, and the two shall be our guide. It seems to me that, despite this rainbow color that shrouds all the doctrine of nature teaching, and in the midst of what I must say sometimes appear to be poetic exaggerations of the prophets of adolescence—I believe that in the midst of all this there are at least two distinct and rational pronouncements that may well give us pause and make us ready to preach these far and wide through our country, until they shall be adopted in every school and revolutionize every school and college and university. These two principles are principles which have been touched upon today; I am only repeating them; but these two principles I should like to inscribe upon a banner to be carried in a practical campaign for their introduction into our school system. The first of these mottoes is "more motor training," and the second is "more motive training."

More motor training. Our people and the public must be taught to know that there is a part of education in which books have no part, and while they build libraries with imposing porticoes and build schoolhouses of impressive masonry, they must build by every schoolhouse a gymnasium, and they must open at the door of every schoolhouse a playing field for the use of youth and young manhood. Bless God for light; bless God for open air and exercise in the open air. These give us muscle; these give us brain; these, the high ideals by which we are to live. What crime have our children committed that so many of them are confined from three to five hours a day in cramped quarters and their only relief is to keep the lock-step of the chain-gang down long corridors? I plead for motor activity, for relaxation of muscles

and nerves, and more for relaxation of the will ; for an opportunity for self-expression. I believe the time will come—is fast approaching—when that study, which cannot find for itself rational modes of expression—modes of expression linked close to youth as well as manhood—will be driven from the door of the schoolhouse and find its proper city of refuge in the home of the professional scholar and man of learning. “Education” and “learning” are by no means synonymous terms.

The second motto that I wish to emphasize is the motto of motive training. The essence of all character is in motive and choice. Unless there is freedom for spontaneous activity, there can be no true training in character. Now, as we look over the opportunities that are offered by the secondary schools and the colleges, I ask in what field this motive training may be employed. Plainly and at once, the athletics and the school life. And yet into this mine of opportunity we as educators have only driven a shaft now and then. There are brigands who possess this land, and they descend into our well-tilled vineyards of the curriculum to pillage and plunder, to rob and to carry off. Some of us would build a Chinese wall twelve hundred miles long, and set thereon at various intervals towers, and keep out the barbarians. Some of us would make a compact with these people and pay them reluctant tribute. But my friends, that barbarian country is ours, as the educators of the people ; and yet that land is worthless except as it is theirs. The gold mines will vanish, and the ozoned air of the mountain tops will come to be but the sultry air of the plain. There is the paradox ; it is only worth our having as it is theirs.

But there are other fields offered by the school for this motive training which, it seems to me, we ought not to neglect, and that is in the fields of instruction. I speak of this with the more earnestness today because it seems to me that there is a tendency to bring into our courses and our work that which shall make this motive training less. The unbiased observer must feel that to control the secondary schools by a system of examinations is lessening the opportunity for richness of motive on the part of the pupils ; it is lessening the freedom of the teacher ; it is substituting for the many rich motives which are possible for the life at this period perhaps only one—the fear of failure in an examination. We must take great heed lest what we get as the result of such a system on the intellectual side shall be paid for by a narrowing on the side of motive and on the side of character.

The subject of the paper today is, “How can our system of education be better adapted to meet the needs of the times ?” I have been

somewhat disappointed that one point which is especially prominent in the needs of the times was omitted, and that the biological view was solely pursued and the social view was not spoken of. It seems to me that, if our country today has any needs, it is the needs that spring from the problems which we are facing. Is it possible for our social and industrial fabric to exist, or will it be rent and torn asunder? These are problems which come before us with great vigor, with great impressiveness, at the present time. The schools have a great deal to do with the answering of this problem. Competition tends to separate the social elements. The division of labor in such a community as we have tends to make it impossible for one part of the community to sympathize with another. There are two parts to which we should give heed in our school system and in our school training. The first is that part which prepares a man by specialization for his fitting himself into this complex and intricately arranged society in which we live. But there is a second part as important as the first, and that is that we shall see that in every mind of the rising generation there are implanted those thoughts, those feelings, and those principles which are the binding element in society. The greed and selfishness of the individual are taking ample care that specialization shall be carried to an extreme. We, as leaders and thoughtful in the matter of the education of our nation, must give heed that these combining elements are emphasized also. And so it seems to me that there are three important points in which we should give attention to our school system: first, to give it more motor training; second, more motive training; and, third, more emphasis upon the binding elements in our social life.

THE SETTING OF A COLLEGE ADMISSION PAPER IN ENGLISH.

WITH PRACTICAL ILLUSTRATIONS.

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Of the Roxbury Latin School.

DOUBTLESS to the minds of many of you, as you read the subject of the morning and saw who was first to speak upon the theme, there occurred the old Latin proverb, *Sutor, ne ultra crepidam*. It may well seem presumptuous for a teacher in a secondary school to treat of the setting of a college admission paper. It is his province to prepare pupils to answer such questions as the college may set. Should he also suggest to the college the questions to be set in order to enable his pupils to pass?

To these objections I may reply that the topic is not one of my own choosing. When I was requested to address this meeting, my subject was assigned. At first I hesitated, for it seemed to me that a paper on such a theme ought to come from a college representative. Then I remembered an incident that decided me to accept:

Not very long since about half a score of us, in the vicinity of Boston, who send boys yearly to the Harvard examinations in English, invited one of the chief men in the English department of the University to meet us in a friendly discussion. The conference was very satisfying; we found that college and school were striving for the same end, and that each side was glad to view the situation from the standpoint of the other. The teachers submitted certain specimens of questions that they believed could be asked with profit; and they were pleased and surprised, when the next Harvard examination papers appeared, to discover some of their suggested questions, inserted almost *verbatim*.

No college wishes to exclude candidates fitted to profit by its courses, any more than the self-respecting teacher wishes to smuggle into college his unfitted pupils. School and college

are allies, and what interests or affects one, interests or affects the other. The very name of this association indicates that we may, without prejudice, pass over the boundary line and discuss matters in our neighboring provinces for mutual improvement and enlightenment.

If, then, we wish to know concerning a student's ability to enter upon college training in English with profit, and if we determine to decide this matter by the medium of a single admission paper—I believe there is a better way, but that is another story—if, in the endeavor to throw light upon our problem, a teacher in a secondary school were to set an admission paper embodying his views, would it differ materially from those set by the colleges?

It is, perhaps, impossible to answer that question categorically. Where uniform examinations are not adopted, the colleges differ among themselves in the character of their admission papers as widely as they would differ with the preparatory schools, were the latter privileged to submit such papers for approval. Moreover, I am not a chosen representative of the secondary schools. I believe I am in substantial accord with many of the English teachers in New England, but I do not wish to hold them responsible for my vagaries, and I speak only for myself in the suggestions which follow. I hope the ensuing discussion will throw a strong search-light upon any untenable doctrines, for I have no pride in believing an error—even of my own invention.

First, then, let us inquire, *Of what should a college admission paper in English be a test?*

The lowest test of all, in my opinion, we may term the mechanical. This examines a MS. for neatness; and as neatness begets accuracy, a neat examination book predisposes the examiner at once in favor of the candidate. Next it examines the book—perhaps half unconsciously—for crowding. If no word touches another upon the written page the rudest penmanship is generally legible, and the fantastic pot-hooks may serve, until closer inspection follows, to indicate character. Thus the candidate produces a second favorable impression. Then the

test goes on—if you will permit me to personify it—to scrutinize the spelling, the punctuation, and the division into paragraphs. Pardon me if I say, in passing, that I think undue emphasis is sometimes laid upon these very desirable accomplishments. Their acquirement will not make a man cultured, or their non-acquirement necessarily render him illiterate. Yet I am persuaded that if Chaucer, or Will Shakespeare, or Milton were to knock unheralded at the doors of some colleges, and submit autograph copies of their choicest unpublished lucubrations to prove that, after training, they could write with edification—I am persuaded that they would all be turned back till they could spell better than Geoff., write better than Will, and punctuate better than John.

I remember seeing a MS. by James T. Fields that was sent up to the printer, and the only punctuation marks in the whole article were dashes. They did duty as commas, semicolons, periods, and what not. The printer was made silent partner with plenipotentiary powers, and no doubt satisfied the author. It is an undeniable fact that we may, without reproach, hire men and women by the day to spell for us, to punctuate for us, and to paragraph for us. But only charlatans hire others to do their thinking.

One of our New England colleges prints upon its papers the solemn declaration that no candidate whose work is seriously defective in spelling, or punctuation, or division into paragraphs, will be given a certificate in English. It seems to assume that if he offend in one point he is guilty of all. It is consistent too. I, having suffered, compassionate the distressed. Last summer it refused a certificate to one of my best writers because he spelled like a gentleman, and not like a scholar. I went to investigate. Before his book was found I said to Professor —, "I predict that in choice of words, correct syntax, logical order, and clearness of thought and expression, he was above the average. But his spelling is poor." The diagnosis written on the book-cover confirmed my prognosis in a surprising manner and almost word for word. He was rejected on spelling alone. Inferior writers but better spellers received C and D.

Now I consider that, the placing of undue emphasis on a mechanical test. How do you know whether this paper is spelled, punctuated, and paragraphed as it should be? You may criticise or even condemn it; but you will consider only what meets the ear, and if I have sinned grievously in my manuscript the printer will throw his typographical mantle over me and you will never know.

There is a higher test than the mechanical, which we may call the scholarly. This seeks to know whether the candidate has read with intelligence and care the books assigned, and whether he can discuss portions of them with ready and accurate expression. In other words, it is a test in composition, with subject-matter supplied from the body of literature which has been read.

But the highest test of all yet remains: this I shall call the literary test.

I am well aware that some colleges look with disfavor upon any attempt to teach literature in the secondary school. But I cannot believe that they are in the majority, otherwise why do they assign us literature to read? Why do we waste our time over the *Merchant of Venice*, which contains more poetry than fact? Why are we given *Lycidas* as a book for "special study?" Is it that we may familiarize ourselves with the biography of Edward King, or that we may puzzle our brains over that exquisite anatomical paradox—*blind mouths*? or discuss the fabled "fable of Bellerus old?" If that be the object, or if *Lycidas* be treated by teacher or studied by pupil as if that were the object, the results will be dismal. A young man wrote me within a week, saying, in substance:

"I read Milton's Minor Poems last year, while preparing for college, and thought them stupid. A few nights since I picked up *Lycidas* by accident and found it charming."

And his explanation was both philosophical and literary:

"In the first place, I suppose, I did not enjoy it because

Bitter constraint and sad occasion dear

forced it upon me."

I am fain to believe that those who assigned works in litera-

ture as a basis for composition, did so with the expectation that such books would be appreciated and enjoyed. Is it too much to suppose boys and girls yet in the secondary school capable of appreciating literature? Nay, is it absurd to imagine that here and there, as years roll on, may be found some schoolboy or schoolgirl who shall create literature? And ought not examining boards to look with patient, if amused, toleration upon their crude yet legitimate attempts? Whenever I felt inclined to judge harshly my little girl as she stumbled or hesitated over long words in learning how to read, I used to apply a corrective to myself by trying to read a new language in a strange character. Such an attempt was often no less humiliating than instructive. In like manner, if the college examiner—who is not always on the faculty, or even an expert, but often a paid neophyte with sympathies less tender than his years—if this examiner should submit himself to the same stressful conditions as those under which his victim writhes, he might be surprised to discover that even the product of his own practiced pen would not be literature. Not every scholar can turn off a *Rasselas* at a sitting.

Within forty-eight hours a memorandum has fallen into my hands concerning the examination of a certain boy at a certain college. The boy failed to pass, and his teacher sought and secured permission to see the book that was rejected. One of the themes assigned was, "Priam goes to Achilles to recover Hector's body;" an excellent topic, giving to a student who had read the *Iliad* an opportunity to show his knowledge of the subject, and to exhibit his skill in narration, description, or invention. One sentence written by the candidate ran as follows: "His white hair hangs about his aged face, and touches the purple and gems of his robe." Such a passage is not above criticism, but what is its fault? Will each of you kindly decide for himself how he would characterize it? . . . The examiner marked it "drool!" a term that seems to me to have been fished up from some puddle on the college campus rather than drawn from wells of English undefiled; and with this apparently favorite, but somewhat overworked, epithet the examiner stigmatized several similar passages.

The teacher says: "There were two or three misspelled words, and two or three sentences marked 'atrocious,' when the boy in his zeal for his subject had thought and written too rapidly—the words tumbling over each other."

Now I speak quite impersonally; for I know neither the college, nor the boy, nor the teacher, of whom I have spoken. I am not informed whether it was a New England college. I am also willing to concede that the passages that were crowded and misspelled may have presented to the eye of a scholar a truly "atrocious" appearance. But I submit that it was rather severe to mark such a mild flight of the imagination as "His white hair falls about his aged face and touches the purple and gems of his robe," as *drool*. The boy did not say *His snowy hair falls about his wrinkled face*; or, *His wintry locks conceal his furrowed features*. He not only did not reach the depths of depravity in expression, but it is difficult to see how, if he tried to paint the scene at all, he could have done so with more quiet color, unless he had said, *His hair falls about his face*; and that would be so bald he might as well have had no hair at all.

The question here arises, Should we clip the wings of a young writer every time he attempts to soar? If such a passage as

"You cataracts and hurricanoes spout
Till you have drenched our steeples, drowned the cocks! . . .
Singe my white head! and thou, all-shaking thunder,
Smite flat the thick rotundity of the world!"—

if such a passage as this arouses no invidious comment when written by a master of literature, why should we deny a novice the privilege of saying "white hair" and "aged face?" Note, also, that this "drooling" boy uses color true to Homer's description, that his grammar is perfect, and that not a word in the passage is misspelled.

We are taught not to despise the day of small things, and it is not always wisdom to disdain young things. What has been may be. We do not forget the precocious Chatterton, who literally misspelled his way into fame, concocting his astonishing forgeries in the old muniment room at Bristol and dying at eighteen. We remember our own virile Bryant, who produced

his masterpiece at about the age when Chatterton closed his sad career; and though by reason of strength the great American lived till his "white hair" swept his "aged face" at fourscore and four and wrote excellent poetry all adown the Flood of Years, he reached high-water mark in his maiden effort. Accordingly, I believe firmly that some questions should be framed looking to a higher test than either the mechanical or the scholarly; that the literary realm should not be neglected. I believe that even glaring deficiencies in one of these realms ought not to exclude a candidate, provided he appears qualified in the other two. I consider such a candidate a person of promise, and college education, as I conceive it, is designed still further to cultivate promising men and women. *A fortiori* I maintain that in those rare cases where a candidate proves himself both scholarly and literary, but sadly needs to perfect his mechanism of expression, that he should not be cast into outer darkness, while those who can write perfect platitudes, or tell the *whole* story of Cambuscan bold, or spell Chautauqua correctly, are given an honorable seat at the Banquet of the Learned.

Have I wandered from my theme? Doubtless, if you call me to account geometrically. I have not come by an air line; but you will be glad to learn that I have reached my second and final point: *What sorts of questions give suitable tests in the respective realms that I have mentioned?*

The mechanical realm need not delay us long. No knowledge of literature is needed here. The dean of a New England college once told me that he would readily consent to have no formal examination in English if he were allowed to mark the books of applicants in German, Latin, Geometry, and Chemistry with regard to their mother tongue. That position is surely consistent with the idea that English literature, as a study, ought to be deferred until the candidate reaches college; but it seems to me that some topic from experience, such as, *Sketch your career at the fitting school*, would furnish a fairer test. Still, any question that will call forth a short paragraph in reply, will suffice for the mechanical test.

In the scholarly realm, so long as present conditions prevail,

the college examiner wishes to know, presumably, whether the assigned books have been read. Then first of all it should seem wise to set questions which anybody could answer in some fashion—if he had read the assigned works as indicated—and which nobody could answer by guesswork. These answers could be examined carefully with a view also to grammar and the elements of rhetoric; such as, choice of words, unity, logic, and precision. As my paper calls for "practical illustrations," I submit a few questions based on the books to be read this year, and designed to discover, primarily, whether the required reading has been done.

1. Which of the books for "study and practice" do you consider the greatest work? Did you enjoy it most?

2. Which of the books for "reading and practice" did you enjoy most? Give your reasons.

3. Quote ten consecutive lines from each of two poems read by you in preparation for college. State how you came to know these especial lines.

4. Write any interesting incident from *Ivanhoe*, in from 200 to 300 words.

5. Describe briefly the following characters, devoting not more than three lines to each: Shylock, Brutus, Will Wimble, Mrs. Primrose, Death-in-Life, Rowena, King Gama, Godfrey Cass, and Banquo.

Besides questions like the above, I would have, even in the scholarly realm, topics dealing with personal experience. Compositions on such topics could be examined for mechanism, for grammar, and for simple rhetoric. But I would *not* have questions in grammar, philology, or dry detail set upon any book in the assigned list. The very thought that a book in English must be so prepared is enough to give the pupil a cordial hatred for the work; a hatred which, if not philosophical, is psychological, for there are more things in school and college, ladies and gentlemen, than are dreamt of in our psychologies.

Finally we come to the literary realm. If we agree to examine in this, what questions are suitable?

Speaking broadly, I should say they must be questions testing appreciation and genius on the part of the applicant—remem-

bering, however, that appreciation does not necessarily imply ability to write literature; one faculty is merely critical, the other creative.

I do not underrate the difficulty of setting an examination in literature. Some admirable teachers say it cannot be done. No man has succeeded in extracting sunshine from cucumbers, though it is doubtless there; and if our chemistry were sufficiently refined, cucumbers might come to take the place of coal. He would be a genius, indeed, who could discriminate, without similes, between salt, sour, and bitter, or could describe intelligently—so that he that ran might smell—between the odor of white rose and heliotrope. Some concrete facts cannot be put into words. "Better imagined than described" tells only half the truth concerning them. As the greatest forces are the invisible—air, steam, electricity, gravitation, spirit—so the greatest truths are the ineffable and refuse to be imprisoned in a catechism.

But admitting all these practical difficulties, there are some questions that may be asked, the intelligent answer to which shall show appreciation of taste, force, style, and quality; there are other questions which may elicit replies indicative of both critical and creative ability. Add to these, questions pertaining to wide reading, scholarly research, and special information. I submit a few as they occur to me. I do not offer them as models, but as suggestions:

1. Make a list of the English books which you have read in preparation for college, so far as you can recall them. Give the name (in full, if possible) of each author. In the case of each author, mention other books, poems, or articles by him; underscore those which you have read or with which you are familiar; tell in what century he lived; mention one or more of his literary contemporaries.
2. Prove that *L'Allegro* and *Il Penseroso* ought to be read together.
3. Show some improbabilities in the plot of the *Vicar of Wakefield*.
4. Write an original paper, in Addison's style, on Sir Roger and a Blind Beggar.

5. Contrast the *Ancient Mariner* and the *Princess*

6. Compare *Burke's Speech on Conciliation* with any other of Burke's speeches that you have read, or with any of Webster's.

I should like to see a set of questions in what I have styled the literary realm, on lines similar to these, inserted into every college admission paper in English. Let them be styled Honor Questions. Let them challenge our youth to climb higher, our teachers to leave the trodden ways. Let them be to the student as Pike's Peak, Mont Blanc, the Matterhorn, and the Himalayas are to the mountain climber. Assume that only the literary pupil can answer any. Expect no one to answer all. But let proficiency and genius have their opportunity; encourage the zealous teacher to do better work and the ambitious student to take a broader view.

DISCUSSION.

PROFESSOR MARY A. JORDAN, of Smith College: The very excellence of the paper to which we have listened suggests some of the difficulties in setting a proper examination paper in English. Yet we feel convinced, I am sure, first, that all our college-entrance papers have met Professor Lowell's requirements; and, second, that all of our examiners have been constructive masters of English, appreciating the type of students that he sends up. Therefore there can be no question between Professor Lowell and us.

It is certainly to our credit that in the particulars in which we have ever erred we have been patient targets for his scorn. But as regards the specific question under discussion, it has not been rendered quite clear what an examination paper in English is to examine upon. We have been told of some things that should be avoided. But the question really is: What do the schools wish to offer, what do they think we ought to demand? How are the college examiners to come into relation with the trainers and to test the methods exemplified by students' papers? Practically, the first difficulty that I meet as an examiner is that in some schools examinations are discredited by the custom of excusing from final examinations students who secure either in term work or in intermediate tests a grade which makes the teacher sure of their proficiency. The result is that, if I put what Mr. Lowell calls an honor question in a paper, a student of this type is likely to suppose from simple unfamiliarity with examinations that an unfair require-

ment is made. It is difficult to render the examination process attractive or stimulating to students who have had little or no experience in it. Again and again it has been my experience that a candidate for entrance to college who supposed that she was what is called a prize student failed to pass satisfactory examinations in her chosen subjects because she had not learned how to be examined. This last fall a young man offered himself for examination at one of our universities. In school he had been uniformly excused from examination in his favorite study, on account of his high standing in it. He barely escaped a condition in that subject, greatly to the surprise of his trainers, greatly to the surprise of his parents, and somewhat to my amazement. But when I happened to read the answers that he had given to the questions on the paper I found that he had taken the tone of a person of whom all the commonplace matters would naturally be expected. He wrote a little treatise of a more or less original and creative sort, leaving out all the points which had ceased to interest him, but which he might have omitted from ignorance. I pointed out to him this fact. "But everybody knows those," he said. He had written what might be considered either a very clever paper, or a slightly impudent one. The examiners in this particular university gave him the benefit of the doubt and a low grade for his paper. The English examination under such circumstances often reveals something for which the candidate is not, therefore, responsible. In such cases there is a lack of balance, a lack of good judgment, a lack of academic taste, which might have been taught him, which perhaps it was expected would have been taught him, and which a series of definitely imposed examinations, with explanations from time to time of what they were intended to accomplish, and of the reasons for their special form, might have made thoroughly familiar to him. He might have been spared a feeling of surprised injustice at this result of his examination.

In the next place, I am inclined to think that the personal equation in examination counts for a good deal. It is extremely difficult to frame a paper in such a way as to meet the expectations or the plans of students. I frankly admit that after some twenty years of effort, I am still very ignorant of what the schools and trainers consider most important in their teaching or in our requirements. If I put one question, for instance, calling for originality in treatment and put it second in the list, it may frighten a timid student from a school where little demand for originality was made. On the other hand, if, as the second question, I put a simple demand for facts,

students who have received the other kind of training may exaggerate very much the emphasis attached to the facts. They look the paper over and see three or four things that they cannot answer, and they fall to wondering how far these failures are to count against them and the things they do know. This goes on indefinitely. In other words, the maker of the examination paper is not acquainted with his candidate; the candidate does not understand the make-up of the paper or the standards of marking. They are likely to overvalue marks anyway. They frequently find the freedom offered them under the expectation that it will be considered a privilege, vague and indefinite. It represents all the horrors of the unknown. Students say, "What did you want to have as the answer to that question?" and I have said, "Whatever you wanted to answer." But it was evident that my question had utterly failed in its aim. In other cases a paper has seemed too easy and has been despised. To a student having been used to a very exact, very precise, and very obviously adjusted set of questions, and meeting what appeared an uncharted freedom, the conclusion has been that the demand was not intended to be anything that a person could not answer without special preparation, and that therefore the school would fail of the credit due it for its fine and conscientious work. The difficulties of setting an examination paper in English are really the difficulties attaching to all examinations. What do we really think about examinations? In what spirit ought they to be offered by the school? How far is it possible to bring the students into a condition of sympathy and co-operation with the process? Students generally seem to feel that an examination paper is more or less of a catastrophe, something that should not be expected to be understood, and about which, like some of the mysteries of theology, it is wiser and more reverent not to inquire too closely. I remember setting a paper myself in the junior year in college, and the comment made by one of my bolder spirits in the paper handed in was: "Assuming this to be one of the well-known faculty jokes, the answer would be as follows." I respected the young woman's intrepidity; I was not sure that I altogether respected her judgment. It seemed to me that a little more careful and serious acceptance of a possible meaning, even on the part of a member of the faculty, might have led her to a conviction on the whole more edifying. Then, I am inclined to think that as far as examination papers are concerned, whether in college or in preparation for it, the relation of the emphasis of the training and the apparent emphasis of the paper is not only vague, but often almost

mysterious to the student. To a certain extent this is necessary. One of the purposes of examination is the training in self-possession. Those of you who have read "Kim" remember that he was a boy of considerable mental and other endowments and that he usually managed to impress the persons whom he met as being worth while, though unconventional. But in his experience the things that he fought against most fiercely were the ones that he turned to for support in the rare lapses of his very uncommon self-confidence. The opening stanzas of one of the chapters represent, I think very clearly, the spirit to which the process of education properly contributes. Whether the examination is to be the beginning or the end of the education, is a question open to debate. But examination may properly take for granted something done. There must be something in the candidate or his attainments to examine upon. Kim's morning verses overheard by the camel driver show plainly enough what he was prepared on :

Something I owe to the soil that grew —
More to the life that fed —
But most to Allah who gave me two
Separate sides to my head.
I would go without shirts or shoes,
Friends, tobacco, or bread,
Sooner than for an instant lose
Either side of my head.

But few students come to us in a similar spirit of intelligent self-assertion. I am inclined to think that if they did we might consider them mature enough for graduation.

But even this is not all that goes to make a satisfactory examination paper. There are besides the moral quality suggested already, information and skill in presenting it. For this reason it seems, on the whole, quite fair, that the type of paper which sets distinct difficulties should at least be tolerated by the student and by the student's trainer. It ought to be remembered besides that difficulties do not appeal equally to all persons; what is an effort to one person is pleasurable expression to another. Any means of lessening unreasonable strain from uncertainty or the fear of injustice is earnestly desired by good teachers. But good teachers differ about what should be considered unreasonable. Time ought to be allowed for students to collect their wits, and certain types of failure should be met by full permission to try again. And yet, as long as it is true that the power to do a thing at once and when called upon is one of the purposes for setting an examination at

all, a first failure is to that extent a failure in this power, and the candidate ought to have fortitude and intrepidity enough to meet the truth, even though he may partly recover himself later.

To return to Kim. When he met the jeweler who handled men who were broken and jewels that needed mending, he was really being tested for his fitness to enter upon what his intrepid young soul had already chosen as his aim in life—to play in the great game and have a price on his head. Kim was already well along, though, for he had elected to endure hardness. Too many prefer to live easily. At seventeen or eighteen they talk of “me” and “my temperament;” they talk of “me” and “what I can do best;” they talk of “me” as if they were now complete, instead of being, like Adam in the old play, crossing the stage to get created. But to whatever applied the test is the same to Kim as to the others. He was placed in extraordinary, and to him probably disconcerting, conditions. There were gods and idols, incense, men and machines unlike those he had known, although he considered himself ordinarily a competent and experienced person. His self-confidence was attacked at as many and as vital points as possible. First he was shown the untrustworthiness of his senses. Then he was subjected to the influence of a powerful will, helped by hypnotic skill. Illusions which had succeeded uniformly with other men and boys, Kim resisted by the involuntary device of steadying his mind by repeating the 7’s and 8’s in the English multiplication table. Kim had not loved the English multiplication table and he had not consented to spend his time on it with this end in view. He had learned it because it was part of the mysterious scheme of things which was to introduce him to the great game and the delicious excitement of living with a price on his head. Something of this mystery and temporary discomfort is in the nature of the end involved. Kim, for all his oriental resourcefulness, could not escape it, nor can we. His teachers were too wise to try. They trained him to meet difficulty and then looked for facts to justify their preparation, even from unexpected sources. But the strenuous life has its charms fortunately, since we cannot entirely elude it, if we would. Teachers and students, by the papers we write and the papers we set we are tested, and from end to end of life and thought we play the great game with a price on our heads. And it will be found that facts well and thoroughly learned are a good point of departure for the student and for the English paper. Precision and skill in presenting them, force and some originality in relating them, are desirable qualities, which it is not

unreasonable to expect that an English paper should display, as do other practical interests of the student's life.

MR. JAMES W. MACDONALD, agent of the Massachusetts Board of Education: I assure you I appreciate the compliment which you have paid me in inviting me to discuss this question before you. I shall endeavor, so far as time is concerned, not to abuse your courtesy; so far as the sentiments which I may express are concerned, I am not quite so sure. I think it may be as Professor Dolbear, of Tufts, once said to me on accepting an invitation which I had extended to him to speak at a teachers' institute: "When you hear what I have to say, you may wish I had died in infancy."

The meaning of the phrase "instruction in English," seems to be confined, in discussions of courses of study and college examinations, first, to instruction in English literature, with a view to cultivating appreciation, and, second, to instruction in grammar, rhetoric, and composition, with a view to cultivating the power of expression. It seems to be overlooked generally that almost all the other branches taught in the high school and college are conducted in English, and that other subjects furnish even superior opportunities for training in the mother-tongue. I have a friend who took a brief course in music, not because he was musical, for he was not, but he said he did it to get a knowledge of the language used in musical discussions, so that he might be able to read an article on music intelligently. He did the same with other things, with art for example—brief, chippy courses, non-intensive courses (a wicked thing to do, I know); but he believed that he gained his purpose more directly and that it was the shortest cut to a knowledge of the English language and a command of it.

Furthermore, by the term "English literature" we mean that great department of English works which De Quincy has aptly called the literature of power, because its function is simply to move our feelings, to stir our emotions, and, as De Quincy argues, not to teach anything. According to De Quincy—and I fully agree with him—the purpose of *King Lear* was not to teach history, philosophy, or any other thing; it was simply to shake us to the very depths of our souls, to stir us with feelings of pity for an old man, even though he brought his sufferings upon himself; to fill us with indignation at filial ingratitude, even though it was deserved; and to move us with admiration for filial affection under circumstances that made it heroic. I say, the object

of Shakespeare in *King Lear* was to stir us in that way to our depths; and when *King Lear* has done that for us, it has done all that it can do. The story, the incidents in *King Lear*, are the means by which we are moved. It would be a good thing if we could be so moved without them; it would be a great gain if we could be moved and have our hearts stirred in that way, and be left better, as we always are when we have been so stirred, without the agency of events, stories, or literature; without reading *King Lear* for example; but we cannot; our feelings have to be moved in this way. So by the story of *King Lear* Shakespeare reaches us. But the one grand thing—the one thing that is of value in *King Lear*—is the fact that it moves us and leaves us better, holier men and women as the result.

In literature, then, the one thing for the reader to do, if I am right—and I probably am not; my acquaintance with myself leads me to confess that I am wrong about half the time—if I am right, the one thing for the reader of literature to do is to read and surrender himself to the influence of his author without any distracting or disturbing considerations.

Now, my principal charge against college examinations is not that they overburden the mind with details that are of little or no value; not that they impose an immense amount of work and take time that can be more profitably employed; but it is that these examinations do interpose distracting and disturbing considerations between the mind of the pupil and the influence of the author; close up, as it were, the feelings of the reader to the thing he is reading, and, by keeping him thinking of the skeleton, prevents him from perceiving the life and spirit. It is like working a valuable mineral, not for the gold that is in it, but for the dross.

Let me illustrate. I have some of the college examinations in English before me. These are some of the questions: Give the character of Palamon; the character of Arcite; character of the Vicar of Wakefield. Tell the story of the *Merchant of Venice*. Tell the story of the *Vicar of Wakefield*, and so on.

What are all these things but distracting and disturbing considerations between the pupil and his author? But you will ask: Are not these things good? Ought not a pupil to learn and be able to tell the story of what he has read?

If you are reading a book on science, question your author, doubt him, analyze his statements, put him to the test, compel him to prove his points, criticise him severely, if you please. This is your right

with an author who assumes to teach; but in reading literature, it is not so. The one test is: Does he move, delight, or interest me? In reading history, one of the principal things is to get the details—certain events, certain dates, that need to be remembered; in studying science, there are certain things we need to fix in the memory—certain compositions, certain formulæ, for example; but in reading literature, to me it is one of the beautiful privileges that I can forget the details of what I have read, that has moved me, and after a period of forgetting can take up the book and re-read it with something of the old emotions stirring within me. But when I have taken a literary production and have memorized its facts and incidents—have learned it as I would the driest side of history, that is, as a succession of events—the old feeling and emotion can never be aroused again by reading that work. You may differ from me in that respect; I am stating my experience. Literature is not history, it is not written to be remembered as a series of details. Think, for instance, of reading the murder scene in *Othello*, in which Othello enters the room lighted by a dim taper, where Desdemona is sleeping on a couch, and says: "Put out the light and then—put out the light;" think of reading this passage and what follows it, with one part of your mind bent on determining whether or not Othello has made a good choice of words, another part trying to settle upon what figure of speech was used, and another part trying to memorize and fix the exact sequence of incidents! Think of reading any good literature with the mind preoccupied with all these distracting details, and at the same time overshadowed and depressed with the overwhelming consciousness that after the feast has been partaken of there will be an examination emetic administered for the purpose of getting it back. Tell me, is that the way to read? Are we not bringing into our literature-teaching methods that belong to other branches? The aim in all this is always affirmed to be the cultivation of an appreciation of literature. The attempt to cultivate an appreciation of literature in this way must fail from the nature of the literature itself, and that it does fail can be shown by a large number of cases.

First, what is literature? Literature is the output of thoughts that spring from all the knowledge of things that the author possesses. It is the attempt to express this knowledge in some attractive form. It might be said that literature is the correlation of all other knowledge, or perhaps the blossoming out of all other knowledge. It draws its illustration from history, from art, from science, from mathematics,

from human nature. It is not reading literature alone that is the best preparation for the appreciation of literature; it is the acquisition of other knowledge, a broad, general groundwork of information, that will give the equipment to interpret literature for one's self. Do you want to learn to like Emerson? Begin by studying modern philosophy and science; particularly the theory of motion, heat, electricity, light, and of the formation and evolution of the world and the race. Do you want to learn to like Browning? Begin, not by studying Browning, but with psychology and human nature. I say literature needs for its interpretation a broad knowledge; the broader and profounder the better, in short. Therefore the teacher who is teaching history, the teacher who is teaching art, the teacher who is teaching science, the teacher who is teaching any kind of knowledge, and giving the pupils clear fundamental ideas therein, is doing more to enable the pupil to interpret literature, and is laying for that pupil a better foundation for the appreciation of literature, than the one who is teaching literature itself.

I once read to a friend of mine, a college graduate, by the way, the first two stanzas of Emerson's "Song of Nature," and asked him what he thought of them. He asked me to read them again, which I did:

Mine are the night and morning,
The pits of air, the gulf of space,
The sportive sun, the gibbous moon,
The innumerable days.

I hide in the solar glory,
I am dumb in the pealing song,
I rest on the pitch of the torrent,
In slumber I am strong.

He meditated for a few moments after I had finished, and then remarked: "That sounds to me like utter nonsense." His lack of appreciation of the poetic beauty and meaning of the stanzas was due to his lack of the necessary interpreting knowledge of science. I hold, our reading depends largely on our knowledge. Appreciative readers of good literature came out of the old-time school and college before literature was taught in them at all.

I have said that many cases could be cited to show that the method of teaching literature which I am censuring fails of its purpose. I shall give but one.

I have of late been thrown into the company of a number of young

women at different times; some of whom were college graduates, some now in college, one of these in a New England college that prides itself on its strong course in literature. I heard those young women talk about the books they were reading. And what were these books, do you think, those that they all had read in the college requirements? Not a bit of it. I do not remember the names of many of the books they were reading, for they were unfamiliar to me; but one of them was *A Fair Pagan of the Alleghanies*.

One of these young women, to my knowledge, had read two or three of Scott's novels before entering the high school, but after reading *Ivanhoe* in the college requirements seemed to have lost her taste for him. None of them, with one exception, had read any of Shakespeare except the college requirements. There was manifestly a shrinking on their part from the literature that they had so minutely dissected and studied with a view to the college examinations.

I have been present at recitations where the preparation for college examinations in English was going on. There would be a few—four or five, perhaps more—in the class that would show some interest, but by far the greater part of the class was apparently uninterested and irresponsive to the method of treatment. There are always in a class a few pupils whose flexible, ductile, malleable minds can be made to do anything. If you named the telegraph poles from New Haven to New York, and set them to memorizing the names, they would do it with a show of interest.

To illustrate the character of some of the instruction for college examinations, permit me to relate what I heard in a class that was at work on the *Ancient Mariner*. A girl was called up and proceeded thus: "There was a mariner, and he met three men, and he stopped them, and they wanted him to let them go, but he wouldn't; he held them and he said a ship sailed out of the harbor—. "Here the teacher pulled her up abruptly, saying: "You have left out something." The girl tried to recall what she had left out in the narrative, and going back, started again. She could not, however, and none of the class could remember what was missing. Finally the teacher told her that she had "forgotten to say that the wedding guest sat down on a stone." Another teacher was doing *Macbeth* in that same way. When I asked her what her object was, she explained that there were two scholars in the class that were thinking of going to college, and so she had to teach with a view to getting them ready for the college examinations.

You will say that the college does not want this kind of work; that

this is to misapprehend the purposes of the college. I grant it. I do not accuse you college people of having so bad a purpose; not at all. I know you are too intelligent to approve any such work; but I say it is the inevitable result of the examinations you set. They divert the mind of both teacher and pupil from that which is best and noblest in literature into these narrow channels. It is not altogether what your questions are, but as the teachers do not know where the questions are going to fall, they go into all these petty details. They were, in this instance, studying *Macbeth* as we used to study history when it consisted of learning a series of events in their order, and reciting them. If anyone will visit a class in English literature that is fitting for the college examinations — not all classes, I should say, because there are many exceptions — but if anyone will visit most of such classes and can distinguish between the results of the methods of instruction that are employed there and the training the pupils would be getting if they were reciting simply the details of history, he would be sharper than I am. But I must not dwell longer on this phase of the discussion.

As to the other phase of teaching English, I shall speak briefly. The object is to train pupils to write essays in good English, of course, and the subjects are mostly drawn from the required literature. This makes it still worse for the literature, as it emphasizes attention to what can be retold. But that is not the worst of it.

A person writes well only when he is writing from an impulse from within; when he is writing thoughts of his own thinking that are calling for expression; not when he is writing thoughts that are extorted from him by outside pressure. To force a pupil to write something on a subject for which he is crudely and mechanically prepared, is to do violence to the training of that pupil in thinking and in expression. Here, for instance, I find in one of these examination papers this question: "The Character of Humor as shown in the *Sir Roger de Coverley Papers*." To answer that question one should have read almost everything humorous written during the last two centuries, to get a setting for his exposition; he should have had the *Sir Roger de Coverley Papers* before him as he wrote, and he should have had at least a week if not a month to do it in. What will the pupil do with such a question? I have asked a number of pupils who have taken college examinations this question, and most of them testified that they tried to recall what their teacher "had told them about it." What were the probable facts in the case just cited? Undoubtedly

some officious fellow had written a disquisition on humor in the *Sir Roger de Coverley Papers* as if readers of the *Spectator* were likely to overlook it, and the chances are he had spoiled the naïveté of it; the teacher had hashed this over for his pupils, and now the pupils are rehashing it at an examination, each step a deterioration from its predecessor; the result, a mixture of what the critics and the teacher said, with nothing of the pupils own individuality or spontaneity; nothing from within, wholly from without. Violence, I claim, is thus done to the pupil's individuality.

I do not want to abuse your patience; I should like to talk longer upon this feature of the theme. I am not a prophet, but it does not require a prophet to foresee that, if this present method of teaching English is continued in the secondary school, and in the college, New England has seen her last great literary man or woman. In my opinion this is not the way to make literary men and women.

Here is one more question to which I want to call your attention: "Describe Lowell's treatment of the Holy Grail in the *Vision of Sir Launfal*." Pupils from the high school entering college are asked to answer this question. I challenge any college professor of English to write an essay on this topic. I will not confine him to an hour. I will let him have Lowell's *Vision of Sir Launfal* before him as he writes and will give him a week or a month, or two months, only I want him to send the essay to me and let me criticise it.

Again, the instruction in rhetoric and composition is mainly a set of rules, some of them good, but many of them artificial and hampering; and this is done in defiance of the historical fact that every great writer that we have has made himself great in defiance of the set rules of his time, like those we are teaching with so much pains and so much emphasis, thus repressing individuality and spontaneity.

Emerson says, speaking of the poet:

Great is the art,
Great be the manners of the bard.
He shall not his brain encumber
With the coil of ryth and number,
But leaving rule and pale forethought
He shall aye climb
For his rhyme.

Emerson is right. History, I repeat, teaches us that every great writer has made himself great in defiance of rules? Shakespeare defied all the rules of his time in his writings. Ben Jonson wrote by

rule; but who reads Ben Jonson? (And for that matter it is not long that anybody will read Shakespeare, unless we can rescue him from the college requirements.) We find every great writer was a rule-smasher. I know that the purpose of the college is good, but good purposes often adopt bad means. Let me recall a little history. There was a time when Latin was a living language and was so taught. It became a college requirement, and college examinations were based largely upon Latin, hence the features of the language that lent themselves most readily to examinations came to be emphasized. Latin almost ceased to be taught as a language, but instead as a piece of linguistic mechanism. It became a dead language, but it was not a natural death, it was a murder. We are still learning a lot *about* Latin, but very little anywhere are we studying Latin *as a language*.

A similar tendency today, as a result of college examinations, is going on in English literature and in English composition. The tendency is to place emphasis upon the wrong things, and if it continues it will be in my opinion the death of literary attainment in New England.

I have a great reverence for college professors; we all have. We love you, we honor you, we respect your great wisdom. We feel toward you something as Eugene Field represents one of his characters as feeling toward Dana of the New York *Sun*: "The sum of human knowledge wasn't half what Dana knew." We are ready to bow down before you so low (to use the language of an Irish friend of mine) that the ends of our noses will make footprints on the ground. We beseech you, however, to be careful not to misuse this reverence, not to misdirect our teaching.

The college professor has had an awakening of late. He has come out from his seclusion; he wants to take a hand in the world and in the movements of education. The movement had begun some half a century before he awoke, but at last he felt a stirring within. It was a noble desire on his part to want to take a hand in educational reform, but he didn't like to exert his energies where he could see no results; he did not like to spend his efforts in trying to move the immovable. So, instead of reforming the methods of instruction in colleges themselves, he undertook to tell the secondary teachers how to do their work. We would beseech you, college professors, to use your power over us wisely, so that it may help us to a fuller life rather than to an early death. We realize, and hope you realize, that your authority is so great over the public mind that an error, supported by *one* of you, has

more go and more spread to it than the truth supported by *twenty* or *thirty* of us underlings. Please remember this, and again I entreat you, use your wisdom wisely, and do not lead us in the wrong direction.

[The articles by Mr. Hadley, Mr. Tyler, Mr. Lowell, Miss Jordan, Mr. Jacobs, and Mr. MacDonald are reports of addresses given by them at the annual meeting of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of New England. The report of this association has been the feature of the December number of this journal for the past ten years and is looked for by our readers. We regret that lack of space prevents us from inserting the remainder of the discussions, but the annual volume may be obtained in a few weeks from the secretary, Mr. Ray Greene Huling, Cambridge, Mass.—EDITOR.]

CONCERNING HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS.

LAST year I asked one hundred high-school principals and superintendents of schools to give me the results of their experience with high-school teachers, indicating their strong and weak points, as they had occasion to observe them, in the practical work of the schoolroom. Then I went over carefully the records of one thousand inspections of secondary teachers on file in the office of the Accredited Schools Committee of our university. These inspections were made by a number of professors who were thought to be especially competent to do this delicate work; and as their reports determined the standing of the schools and individual teachers in question, every precaution was taken to have them made with care. I have thought it might be of some interest to high-school teachers to learn what their official superiors think about their good and bad points, and the occasion will furnish me an opportunity to add a few comments of my own on the side.

The one hundred principals and superintendents who responded to my inquiry, said, with scarcely an exception, that the chief element of strength in the university-trained instructors, who had given no attention to the principles of teaching, lay in their comparatively broad and accurate grasp of their subjects, and this they all declared was of fundamental importance. The university and normal graduates were compared in this respect, and to the great disadvantage of the latter.

But none of my correspondents dwelt long upon the merits of broad scholarship; they devoted themselves mainly to the shortcomings of these scholarly teachers. The principal faults pointed out are familiar enough to every man engaged in practical school work. The university graduate falls short of complete success in his teaching, mainly because he has no just conception of what a high school ought to accomplish, and when he starts in he has little or no sympathy with the kind of work the high school must do. Speaking generally, he has little appre-

ciation of what should be the right relation of his department to other departments in the high school; his ambition is to push his subject to the front regardless of its comparative value for high-school education, and he often seems pleased if he can crowd out other studies altogether. He has not given five minutes' serious thought to the question of the relative values of studies, and is without any adequate notion of what a good and workable program of studies for the high school should be. He has been thinking, even up to the moment of beginning his teaching, about mastering his physics, or Latin, or algebra, and his mind is a blank on the subject of the needs as a whole of high-school boys and girls.

Many of my correspondents say that they have difficulty with their college-trained teachers, in that they often strenuously insist upon doing special and technical work before their pupils have gained a general view of a subject. An enthusiast in physics wants to spend the whole year on some department of light; the biologist will not teach anything but the frog; the Latinist wants the subjunctive mood set right in the minds of the young classicists, and so it goes. The man from college, the best type of man, has himself long ago passed beyond the general view of his subject, and he has come to feel the importance of going deep into some special problem; he is eager to push toward the frontier and take a look into the unknown country, and, naturally enough, he feels that what is of chief interest to himself ought to be of chief interest to every one else.

Eighty-five of these principals and superintendents mention a third very common defect in high-school teachers. They say they insist upon lecturing to their pupils in a formal way, and that consequently they shoot over their heads. And the lecturer is apt to argue that if he is not followed and appreciated the class is at fault, and so he gives his pupils a good tongue-lashing frequently. It is his business to expound the truth, and the pupils' business to absorb it, and if it does not find lodgment in their thought, why then he can do no more than berate them for it. He does all that can be expected of him when he spreads out wisdom before these callow youth; if they do not drink it down

he is not going to put his finger into their mouths to get them to suckle.

The reports upon one thousand teachers, by our inspectors, designate a half dozen or more grave defects, the one mentioned most frequently being *spiritless* teaching, the causes of which are numerous, but formal text-book work is at the bottom of most of it. Teachers insist upon verbatim rendering of a text, which at best is only partially comprehended. Out of the one thousand teachers, one hundred and thirteen teach in this lifeless way. The pupils see little or no connection between the parts of the subjects they are studying; and, worst of all, what they are trying to appropriate has no connection with the real situations of daily life. These teachers, so far as they have any clear end in view in their work, and many of them have none, are dominated by the aim of formal discipline; their chief ambition is to "develop the mental faculties" of their pupils, and the way of accomplishing this is to require them to learn a text and give it back without addition or subtraction. This sort of work will, moreover, in the opinion of these teachers, such as have an opinion at all, develop habits which will be of great importance in after life—habits of attention, perseverance, long suffering (although the instructor would not call it by this name), and the capacity for doing disagreeable and uninteresting tasks; it will develop contentment with plodding, and docility in the performance of drudgery; and since life is one long struggle in doing things one hates, he had best get used to it good and early. These "common-sense" teachers take the view that Mr. Stelling did in his direction of Tom Tulliver's education; when he discovered the thing Tom hated most, that was what he administered to him in most liberal doses, so as to best "develop his character."

It seems probable that every high-school teacher would be saved some unhappy hours, and would be made a more helpful guide to youth, if he gave a little time to an examination of the dogma of formal discipline before he started out to teach the young idea how to shoot. It does not seem to be an impossible task to get the prospective teacher to realize that he ought to try to teach his subject so that it will explain in a real and vital

way some phase of the pupil's environment, and give him a mastery over it. Elementary teachers have been hearing so much the past decade or longer about formal teaching that their work is being enriched and vitalized everywhere, and the laboratory has saved some high-school teachers, even without their knowing it, from dreary formalism ; but still a large portion of the latter fail because they are satisfied with verbal, mechanical, definition teaching. This is why things move so slowly in the classes of these spiritless teachers. Pupils are "eager to get out of the class at the close of the hour ;" "they seem bored ;" their faces "show lack of intelligence and appreciation ;" they seem ready to "cut up pranks at every opportunity ;" "they make the teacher's life miserable ;" "there is a good deal of nagging going on in these class-rooms all the time." This type of teacher has a hard time herself, and makes things hard for her pupils ; and, most unfortunate of all, she wastes their precious hours, and develops in them a distaste for everything that has to do with school life.

The second fault which our inspectors find most frequently is not entirely different from the first—*narrowness of view*. Teachers go into a great deal of technical detail without leading pupils to an appreciation of their bearing upon the large questions involved. Again, pupils are kept immersed in forms, definitions, rules, and fail to grasp the content ; they do not get into the spirit of the things they study. This defect is noticed more often in the teaching of English literature and foreign language than elsewhere, though it is seen also in history and other studies. In these subjects which are so full of human interest the teacher keeps the pupils plodding along on the dusty road, and never once leads them upon the heights where they can get a view of the landscape lying around. This is the cardinal sin committed by ninety teachers in our lists. Of course, it must be due primarily to the teacher's lack of a broad and genuine appreciation of the subjects she essays to teach. She has herself taken only the snail's view ; she is master of nothing but forms and technicalities. She has dined off the husks of knowledge, and knows not the taste of the real grain. She

regards a language as a body of verbal forms strung together according to rules described in rhetoric and grammar, and she looks upon them as having final value in themselves. So it is not to be expected that she can lead others into a mastery of these symbols merely as the media for the gaining and expression of thought and feeling. History is for her not a story of human life in times agone; it is a glossary of names and a table of dates. Literature for such a teacher is not a portrayal of concrete situations in human life, but it is a drill book in rhetorical and grammatical formulæ. We have found some teachers who have gained a broader view of these things for themselves, but who, when they come to instruct others, abandon it, and give themselves up to rules and forms and dates and names and definitions, and they get their pupils mired in this slough of despond. These are the mechanical, artificial, wooden teachers.

Next in the list of demerits comes inaccurate knowledge, which is found most frequently in the teaching of foreign language and history. One sees teachers who make an effort to give instruction in German, but who have gotten all they know out of a book, and who have never spoken or read a word of it outside of the schoolroom. They have never had serious occasion to use the language; they have never felt the spirit of it; they have never thought at first hand in it, or interpreted thought presented in it; they have never touched the language except in its grosser forms; all the subtle peculiarities that really constitute the personality of the language have escaped them. And with this equipment they attempt to lead others into a mastery of the language—a sad case of the blind leading the blind. Here, as we should expect, teaching attains the acme of artificiality. And, moreover, teachers often do not know intimately even the formal, the mechanical side of the language; they have not been compelled to speak it, except in a parrot-like and exhibition sort of way; they have never had to deal with any real and vital situation, where the accurate and ready use of the language was essential to success, so their brains have not become impregnated with it, their tongues have not become shaped to it, and their ears have not become keen in detecting crudities in it.

Anything goes with such a teacher ; for how can he be keen in a situation where keenness has never been required of him, except in a make-believe way ? To know a language one must have had to employ it for serious and consequential purposes ; artificiality and superficiality, which mere text-book work tends to encourage, counts for next to nothing.

One who gets only a teaching knowledge of Greek and German can never lead the young into possession of them in the most effective way. What has not come into one's own life in any important, vital way, can never be taught to others economically and effectively. The teaching relation is always partial and imperfect unless the teacher seeks to impart to the learner knowledge which he has found of value in adjustment to his environments ; any other kind of knowledge will be cold, inert, sterile in the teacher's hands. The human mind is so constructed that it will work effectively in those situations only where lack of such efficiency will bring pain ; it will not exert itself to be exact or agile where the results of its efforts are indifferent. So if we would develop in our teachers the capacity to do accurate work in any study we must, in their preparatory training, put them into vital situations, where they will, from hard experience, come to realize the necessity of absolute accuracy ; and this principle holds as well in the teaching of their pupils. The really valuable qualities of mind are never attained by mere formal discipline where there is no life relation between the student and the subject ; it is only when they are used to minister to some vital need that they will be acquired in the most effective way.

Our inspectors frequently report a defect which is regarded as very common and serious by principals and superintendents also. The reports specify eighty teachers who fail to get any work out of their pupils. They "shoot over their heads," using the current phrase. The "teacher is too prominent ;" "she does all the talking ;" "she asks a pupil to solve a problem and then does it herself ;" "she manipulates all the apparatus herself ;" "she draws all the illustrations," etc. The defect in such work is, of course, that pupils are not reacting upon what is presented to them and so are not making it their own. High-

school pupils have not had sufficient experience ordinarily to organize what is offered them in the class-room with systems of thought and conduct already established, unless they actually do for themselves the most of what is done in the class. They cannot fully comprehend an experiment unless they get together and in working order the apparatus to perform it, for otherwise they cannot see how a phenomenon is produced. So to have pupils sit in their seats day after day and look on while the teacher performs experiments to illustrate principles is bad teaching, of course; and it is bad because pupils cannot ordinarily make their own what is being taught, so that they can organize it into conduct, or so that it explains the phenomena in their environment. The ultimate purpose of teaching physics or any science in the high school is, of course, to enable a pupil to interpret the phenomena which occur outside of school; he must be able to see back of the infinite variety of happenings in the real world, great laws and principles which really simplify the world, and so give him poise and stability and confidence in the midst of it all. But this end can never be achieved when the pupil is merely an onlooker in the laboratory, and not active in producing phenomena.

On the other hand, some teachers go too far in doing nothing in the class-room on their own initiative, except to question their pupils. They have heard somewhere that self-activity must always be attained in teaching, and that the best teacher does the least; and they interpret this to mean that the pupil should have nothing done for him, but to be quizzed and exhorted. The rule is made to apply as well to the senior in the high school as to the child beginning his primer. Herein is illustrated the usual result of the learning of a method of teaching as a thing-in-itself, as though it could in some way have substance and validity apart from the principles of mental activity. Teachers who study their art in this way try when they get into any new situation to think what the method says instead of observing the mental processes and products of their pupils and being guided accordingly. A teacher who based his practice upon careful observation of the reactions of his pupils would realize that the

senior in the high school has experiences which will enable him often to apprehend and organize effectively what is presented to him for the first time, so that it is not always necessary that he should be goaded by the question-and-answer prod through everything he is learning; he can dispose of some things as fast as the teacher can give them to him, and there is no time to waste by way of tribute to the god of mechanism. The farther along the scholastic route a pupil gets the greater stock of elementary ideas he becomes possessed of, and the better chance he has of interpreting new ideas and working them into his mental fabric instantly upon their first presentation to him.

A wise teacher would tell his pupils just as much as they could comprehend and just as fast as they could grasp it, because of their experience with similar things in the previous work of the school or in their lives in the world without. But some one may ask how we are to tell when a pupil comprehends unless we quiz him. A true teacher can tell from the thousand subtle signs in eye and body whether what she teaches is finding lodgment in the minds and wills of her pupils. She will attach least importance to the mere verbal reaction of a pupil; he may speak out of the top of his mind, and use symbols that have no content; but the features are a bulletin-board upon which is written plainly to the experienced eye what is happening within. The mechanician must go through the forms, but the genuine teacher fills his mind with the situation before him and adapts himself to it, and flings forms and formulæ to the winds. Artificial and wooden rules which declare that a teacher must never lecture will certainly do as much harm as the opposite sort of thing which leads the teacher to talk all the time. It seems to me, though, that we do not hear enough about the schools making good lecturers of teachers; we have not appraised highly enough the value of a teacher cultivating the power of imparting instruction, in the precise meaning of these terms. A teacher must have made a subject an integral part of his intellectual and volitional self before he can teach it; or, putting it in another way, he must have made those adjustments to the world which he expects to have his pupils make; and

when he has done this he can accomplish something in his teaching if he adds an emotional element to the purely intellectual process of leading his pupil into a knowledge of what he is teaching.

Take, for example, any topic in history ; a genuine teacher would have more than intellectual conceptions in this subject ; he would have an emotional attitude toward every question which could arise. Some things he would approve, others he would disapprove, and a true teacher would help his pupils to interpret facts for their own conduct by his emotional attitude toward them ; and he can best express the results of his experience when he takes some part in a class besides quizzing. He can never arouse the emotional life of his pupils when he simply prods them, and so he cannot so effectively push their ideas over into motor actions. I am aware that much of the pedagogy that is afloat says in its implications if not explicitly that when you get a pupil to see a point it will work out into his conduct, but this is no more than a half truth, if it is really that much. Everyone realizes that there is a vast deal taught in the schools that does not influence the conduct of pupils in the slightest degree ; if they really apprehend the principles that are aimed at they do not strike deep down into the organism and get coupled up with the motives and impulses which are the governors of life. And there is nothing which can bring about this fusion of idea and impulse so readily as the personality of a teacher. If his beliefs have become organized into conduct they will be revealed in many subtle ways through voice and facial expression and manner which will more or less subconsciously be imitated by the learner, and this will tend to incite in him such attitudes as are taken by the teacher.

I am aware that some persons think a teacher has no right to put his own interpretation upon the facts he teaches ; it is said that he must not let the pupil know how he feels about anything. He must be simply an instrument for getting the pupil to learn facts. He must not be in any sense a model to his pupil. He must not give him the benefit of his own experience with the world as it has left an impress upon his emotional life. But this is certainly

an erroneous view of the function of the teacher. In the economy of nature each generation chooses those of its members who have embodied in their own lives the highest ideals of the times, and they have charged them to get these same ideals wrought into the lives of the rising generation. Whatever adjustment the teacher has made and has found of service he will seek by every means in his power to get adopted by those whom he teaches. Of course, in matters in which he is in doubt he will lead his pupil to see the reasons therefor, and leave him free to resolve the doubt by his own experience. But there is much relating to belief and conduct we teach in the schools that we may consider as settled, and our business is to get this embodied in the thought and conduct of the young in the most economical and effective way possible. And the point I want to impress is that this can often be done best by the teacher imparting to the young what he knows, and he must study how he can achieve this most effectively, how he can tell so that his story will be most clearly apprehended and most deeply felt. The teacher who makes up his mind never to tell but to draw everything out of his pupil can never, no matter how skilful he becomes, make much more than half a teacher, especially with older pupils.

Our inspectors report two defects which from my own experience I should assign a more important place than is given in these statistics. Of the one thousand teachers inspected forty "lacked authority." They cannot "command the respect and confidence of their pupils;" "they cannot discipline well;" "their class-rooms are in disorder much of the time;" "pupils follow their own sweet wills;" "the serious work of the school is not the most prominent thing in the minds of the pupils;" "they are bent on mischief;" "they will not apply themselves to their studies, but waste the precious hours in dawdling away their time, or in raising Cain."

These forty teachers could not correct these evils because they lacked self-confidence; they could not show power enough to subdue the spirit of mischief surging up in the bosoms of their pupils; or they were lax in their conception of what should be demanded of pupils; or they had some mannerisms which

operated to their disadvantage. In some cases they lacked physical strength for the needs of the schoolroom, which was revealed in their voices and faces. To my mind, the most serious of all possible defects in a teacher is a weak personality, in the sense in which this is generally understood, though I am aware it is quite indefinite. Pupils come into the school bringing with them usually impulses which have to be replaced by others of a higher character. They have to be won over from a certain kind of conduct to another of a quite different sort. When they are inside the school the old impulses seek inevitably to come to the front, and there is needed a power constantly acting which will noiselessly yet surely put a quietus upon these impulses and give encouragement to others of a more estimable kind. Now this power which must work in silent, unobtrusive, but yet effective, ways is the personality of the teacher; it will countenance certain kinds of conduct and condemn others; and what a powerful teacher regards with favor will thrive in the pupil's demeanor, and what he censures will lie dormant in the pupil's soul.

Of course this will be subconscious, but it will be none the less potent for good. If the personality of the teacher is not grander and stronger than that of his pupil the latter will hold his own course, right or wrong; he must touch some one whose mental and moral measure is outwardly and perceptibly greater than his before he will follow him as a leader. Static goodness (if there be such a thing) is not enough in a teacher; all his virtues must be dynamic; they must incessantly operate upon the social world and transform it. It is instructive to watch a boy among his adult acquaintances in daily life. Here is one that he tyrannizes over without let or scruple; here is another whom he serves as an abject slave; and he is probably never conscious of the reasons for his conduct. It is a subtle matter; a vigorous compelling personality incites to activity a certain group of emotions and impulses in the pupil's soul, while a different personality calls forth a very different group, and it all goes on in a subconscious, quiet way. Everywhere in the race one creature determines how it will conduct itself toward another by means of the signs presented in the voice, the face, the general bearing,

and the thing probably occurs more subtly in human life than anywhere else.

Our inspectors report another defect which is of a kind, in a way, with that mentioned above. They find teachers frequently who have at all times an imperious manner toward their pupils; they are sarcastic in their treatment of the weak and the halting; they never forgive, they cannot excuse failures, they will not be satisfied with anything less than the whole bond. A timid girl tries to answer the teacher's question, but gets confused and retires under a volley of criticism and abuse. These teachers miss no opportunity to rasp their pupils. They are always in a critical, fault-finding mood. One hardly ever hears them saying anything agreeable; they are everlastingly complaining and criticising. The result is, of course, that there is an unhappy relation existing all the time between instructor and student. Pupils get into the way of expecting something distressing to occur. The school in such hands becomes indeed a disciplinary institution. Truth is gained in such a place at considerable cost to good feeling and happiness on all sides. The road to learning if it is a royal one, is also an extremely thorny one.

We have reports of teachers who delight in harassing some particular pupil; and they are continually picking on the weak and defenseless, and those whom nature has cursed with some misfortune in body or mind. There seems to persist in them an old instinct which is often seen in animals—an instinct to torture creatures apparently for the pleasure of seeing them suffer. Is a pupil dull? then he must be put in mind of it every day and shamed before all his companions. Is he awkward? then he must be made gracious by ridicule. Is he timid? then the way to develop courage is to frighten him within an inch of his life every time he tries to recite. These teachers are conscientious enough. They believe in heroic measures in the training of the young; or rather they have no belief, they simply give away to the instincts that we have all inherited from a time when life was lived in a heroic way; when give and take was the law of the land—give as much as you can and take as little of things disagreeable, and the other way

round of things pleasant. Many a pupil is driven out of school from sheer fright of some monster in the teacher's chair. And a timid person will bear the scars in his soul all his life. I have had testimonies from persons who look back upon certain periods of their school life with regret and hatred, because their days were full of fear. Holmes evidently knew the type of pedagogue without sympathy or pity:

Grave is the master's look, his forehead wears
Thick rows of wrinkles, prints of worrying cares;
Uneasy lie the heads of all that rule,
His worst of all whose kingdom is a school.
Supreme he sits; before the awful frown
That binds his brow, the boldest eye goes down:
Not more submissive Israel heard and saw
At Sinai's foot the giver of the Law.

Pope knew him too, and he gives a picture of him in the *Greater Dunciad*:

When lo! a spectre rose, whose index-hand
Held forth the virtue of the dreadful wand;
His beavered brow the birchen garland wears,
Dropping with infants' blood, and mothers' tears.
O'er every vein a shuddering horror runs,
Eton and Winton shake through all their sons.

It seems doubtful if we can do much to determine what we call one's personality. It is probable that ninety-nine one-hundredths of one's make-up comes from heredity, and it is generally agreed that it is quite impossible to alter this appreciably. If nature has not endowed an individual with a strong and sympathetic personality it is probable that culture can do but little toward making him a fit guide for the young. Normal schools once thought they could make a teacher out of any kind of material, but they have learned from experience that they have overestimated their capacities. Some of the leading normal schools today, like Mr. Burk's in San Francisco, make it a business to select out very early those students that come to them that possess the natural traits for teaching, and all the rest they counsel to seek other fields of usefulness. And not until this plan is generally adopted by the universities will it be possible to turn into the secondary schools persons who can

teach in all that this implies. Our universities must facilitate natural selection instead of helping the unfit as well as the fit to survive.

It is clear enough that some of these most common defects in secondary-school teachers can be overcome in part at least, by a little rational instruction before candidates begin their work or while they are in the harness. But the instruction must be rational; defects are often reported which are due to mechanical instruction, which seeks to make a formal rule cover a great multitude of cases where the circumstances are not precisely the same. Such instruction gets the pupil conscious of the rule instead of the conditions existing before him, and as a result he makes a bad mess of it. Here is one teacher who has heard someone say that pupils ought always to get up to recite, and so she keeps at her flock day in and day out to elevate themselves whenever they say even as much as a single word. She wastes time in nagging at her pupils, and she arouses an unhappy and antagonistic attitude in them. They get to regard her and react to her as a vixen, as a termagant instead of a generous and genuine helper. Doubtless there are conditions under which a pupil ought to arise when he recites. If the class is a large one, those farthest away from the one reciting will not be apt to give their attention to what is going on unless they can see and hear the speaker, when this stimulus will aid them in holding their thought to what he says. Then when a class has been long sitting there is some physiological advantage in rising. Again, if a pupil is to speak for some time he can doubtless command himself better and speak with greater force if he arises. But precious time is wasted when pupils are jumping up continually, and it gets to be a mere matter of form with them which detracts from the spirit of the recitation. When the class is small and the teacher is in close spacial relation to them, a very much better spirit is engendered by the less formal method of recitation. For the teacher here to insist upon the pupil rising is to place form before substance; she really alienates instead of wins her class. Still again, when pupils are seated in a semi-circle, so that they can all see one another, the spirit of the class will

often be better for the pupil to recite sitting rather than standing. Once more, a timid pupil is easily embarrassed when he arises, and for him it would often be better to recite in the way in which he can do it with the least embarrassment. And there are other considerations which need not be mentioned; enough has been said to indicate that a teacher who gets hold of some maxim and tries to work it without studying the situation before her, without diagnosing it and getting at the root of the malady she would correct, is sure to make serious blunders and to teach rather like a machine than a living personality.

Here is another teacher who always insists on standing while she teaches. She says it is never good form for a teacher to sit. So she mortifies her flesh all day and usually she mortifies her students. Before the day is over she becomes fatigued, and no disease is more contagious than this. She grows cranky in her conscientiousness and drives her pupils from her. She makes it impossible also to add emphasis to certain phases in her teaching which need to be especially enforced, for if she were seated during the more quiet and intellectual part of her work, then when occasion demanded it she could arise and gain force thereby.

These instances are typical of many that I have come across showing that it is a dangerous thing to have a little knowledge in methods of teaching. In one schoolroom all spontaneity and freedom are abolished because it is a rule of pedagogy that everything must be done decently and soberly and in order. In another schoolroom everyone has all the freedom he wishes because it is a rule of pedagogy that one should not interfere with the rights of the young. The instructor in both cases is thinking about his rule and not about the conditions before him. In his eyes everything done outside the rules of the school should be put upon the same footing, whether it is in harmony with the general spirit of the school or opposed to it. In his displeasure at a student he administers penalties because a rule that he made has been broken. He does not see the necessity of finding out whether the pupil's act really interfered with the well-being of the school, or whether he deliberately broke

some intrinsic law of the school. The *rule* must be enforced. But a teacher who studies schoolroom situations instead of rules would have only the general aims of the school in view, and would then interpret the individual case before her in the light of this general aim, and the tendency of human nature. He would not take the stand that if a certain method of dealing with pupils did not work the fault lay with the pupils, and he would keep at it until the bitter end. He would realize that the school exists to accomplish certain ends, and methods are good or bad according as they assist or hinder in this end. What may be good with one class of pupils under one set of conditions and with one kind of a teacher may be extremely bad with another class of pupils under a different set of conditions and with a teacher of different personal qualities. So that teacher alone is going to succeed who has been gotten into the way of studying schoolroom situations and interpreting them in the light of principles of human nature; the teacher who keeps his mind on rules and works by rule will miss the mark a good part of the time.

Perhaps I have dwelt too long upon the dark side of teaching; I have left myself space to say but a word before closing regarding the brighter side. Our reports make the "power of holding interest" the cardinal virtue in secondary teaching. A teacher is rated high or low according as she possesses this quality in high or low degree. And it is easy to see why this should be a just standard of measurement; for to gain the continuous interest of pupils requires that the instructor should do the thing that ought to be done for them. Interest is the thermometer of live teaching; it shows the warmth generated by one's instruction, thus indicating whether the pupil is having a real and vital experience in the way in which it touches his springs of conduct. When a class is continually interested it implies that the instructor not only knows perfectly what he is teaching, but he also possesses personal qualities which win the confidence and esteem and good will of his pupils. In fine, when a class is all aglow with interest it shows that everything must be working harmoniously toward the one great end of giving pupils a better

understanding of and so a more complete mastery over their environments.

Of course the interest reported by our inspectors is not of a temporary or trivial character; it will not be confused with whim or fancy or caprice or anything of the kind. The pupil is simply *en rapport* with his subject; he is making it his own, and in doing this he assumes the relation toward it that we call interest. It is true that all good teachers sometimes make use of adventitious means to arouse the pupil's feelings and to give him some points of contact with his subject. The Shakespeare teacher organizes a Shakesperean club. He takes his pupils to the opera. He has them dramatize a play themselves. The teacher of French has a French club that meets outside of school where French is the language used; French stories are read and French life simulated. And in other cases teachers have a sense of humor which they employ advantageously in the school-room, thus endowing things intrinsically dull with a certain mellow feeling. These teachers know how to appeal to the funny sense at just the right moment, so that pupils will feel that their pleasure comes from the performance of tasks instead of in some circuitous way, and thus they are pleasantly helped over hard places.

Of course, no teacher can make her work of interest who is not absolutely master of the subject she teaches; she must be full of it, and overflowing. She must be able to anticipate the difficulties of her pupils because she herself has worked over every step of the ground, and looked at the whole from a point far beyond that which the pupil now occupies. "She brings so much to her class" it is said, so much that it illumines the thing in hand, clarifies it, unites it with other experiences and interests in the pupil's life. She knows quotations that bear upon the topic in hand; in short, she knows her subject. And this inclines her pupils happily toward her work. We all want to get help from those who can render us assistance, but we protest, whether consciously or not, against wasting time over those who have no more knowledge or skill than we have. Absolute accuracy as well as fulness of knowledge is essential to continuously com-

mand the confidence and respect of pupils. If they do not feel this mastership they lose their respect for the instructor, and all the most estimable qualities of character cannot overcome this feeling of distrust. Again, the teacher who holds the interest of all her pupils must be a past master in the art of questioning; she must know how to arrange her pupils so as to keep them in vital contact with her throughout the recitation; she must know how to deal wisely with individuals, stimulating the lethargic, reassuring the timid, and exercising patience with the weak. She must have an active sense of good fellowship so that she can appeal to all the profound emotions that ally people together and that do not have a chance ordinarily to express themselves in the formal work in Latin, or algebra, or physics. The pupil's life is a good deal larger than can be compassed within the subject in which he is reciting at any moment, and the great teacher will guide this over-life as well as that which is directly involved in the work in hand.

M. V. O'SHEA.

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EDITORIAL NOTES.

GEORGE HERBERT LOCKE.

THIS Company of an Hundred Associates representing the progressive South has just held its eighth annual meeting at the University of Mississippi.

*THE ASSOCIATION
OF COLLEGES AND
PREPARATORY
SCHOOLS OF THE
SOUTHERN STATES*

Organized for work and not for mere pleasure, with a constitution simply and clearly defined, with a loyal institutional and personal membership, this is the greatest single force for definite educational upbuilding in the South. The object of the association, as stated in its constitution, is "to consider the qualification of candidates for admission to college, the methods of admission, the character of the preparatory schools, the courses of study in the colleges and schools, including their order, number, etc., as well as such other subjects as tend to the promotion of interests common to colleges and preparatory schools." During the eight years of its existence the reforms inaugurated and carried through are remarkable. If one looks back from the present vantage-ground, they seem not so striking; but if he looks forward from the point at which the association started and thinks upon the obstacles that have been overcome, he must be impressed by the solidity and durability that characterize the progress that has been made. Prejudice, conservatism, denominationalism, jealousy and their attendant evils, made many attempts to block the progress, but the onward march swept slowly and surely forward without making enemies or estranging friends. True, there must have been many who viewed the association's measures with but little favor; but, as they saw what its progress meant to education and realized their own inefficiency, they brought up their requirements to the standard demanded of all who sought admission to the association. This has meant the abolition of preparatory departments in connection with universities, a great diminution of the number of preparatory schools that give degrees, and the adoption by all the colleges in membership of written entrance examinations in English, history, geography, mathematics, Latin and Greek. The adoption of such reforms as these has resulted in the development of the better class of preparatory schools which now may be assured of an existence, and an opportunity of keeping their boys for a reasonable length of time. So low were the standards prior to the establishment of this association, that many colleges would receive boys of thirteen, fourteen, or fifteen years of age, who had been one or two years in a preparatory school. It has encouraged the establishment of high schools in much the same manner, as graduation from the grammar grades was formerly considered by too many colleges sufficient for admission to college. Thus the progress has been, not emotional and sporadic, but solid and substantial.

At this meeting at the University of Mississippi one could not but be impressed with the earnestness of purpose, the keen business sense, the high quality of intellectual contribution that characterized all the sessions, and the charm of social life and hospitality for which this state and university are so famous. The address of the president, Professor Edwin Mims of Trinity College, North Carolina, was an appreciation of the work of President Eliot of Harvard, and the note of inspiration and optimism that he struck set the tone for the whole meeting. The practice in regard to the admission of "irregular" and "special" students was well canvassed by President George Denny of Washington and Lee, and Mr. C. B. Wallace of the University School, Nashville. It was plainly intimated that all students were not entering through the door into the fold, but were "climbing up some other way." Ways and means were devised in executive session by which the side entrances of institutions belonging to the association will be more carefully guarded. One of the most scholarly and suggestive papers of the meeting was by Professor F. W. Moore of Vanderbilt, on "The Status of History in the Colleges and Schools of the South." The information was full and accurate, and revealed to the delegates the necessity of developing this great work. Mr. Moore was specially happy in his remarks about the place of southern history in the schools. Professor Saunders of the University of Mississippi, and Professor Claxton of the University of Tennessee, spoke of the promising outlook for the Public High School in the South. Mr. Saunders's paper had very valuable statistics, and is perhaps the most complete statement of the problem and progress of the public high school in the South that has yet appeared. It will be published in this journal. Mr. Claxton's paper dealt with conditions encountered by the General Education Board. His description of the experiment of school consolidation now being tried in Tennessee, supported by local people, stimulated by the educators, and supplemented by the General Education Board, was one of the most interesting incidents of the meeting. Mr. Claxton and his colleagues interested in the progress of education presented to this locality, then poorly served with educational advantages, a plan of consolidation by which some of the disadvantages might be overcome. So impressed were the people that they raised eight thousand dollars, purchased ten acres of land, and prepared to build. The General Education Board believes in helping them who help themselves, and have supplemented this amount. There will be a school building capable of extension at a moderate cost, a house for the teacher, and enough land and of such quality as to provide recreation, occupation, and revenue. The paper on "Athletic Control in School and College," by Professor Dudley of Vanderbilt, showed that they are harassed with the same problems as we in the North. It was difficult to separate this discussion from that of "special and irregular" students, the reason for which will doubtless be obvious to the reader. The closing session took the form of a general meeting in the college chapel, at which addresses were made by State Super-

intendent Whitfield, President Alderman of Tulane University, Chancellor Chaplin of Washington University, and Professor George H. Locke of the University of Chicago. The general topic was "Educational Problems in the Southern States."

This association impresses one as being a legislative body called together to deliberate earnestly, thoughtfully and calmly upon problems that concern the well-being of a vast population. It is in striking contrast to many of our gatherings in that the membership is institutional, and upon vital matters the vote is institutional, not personal. It not only sets up standards and makes laws, but investigates the conduct of the institutions in regard to the observance of the laws. The establishment of a reasonable and attainable standard has been the means of raising the level and the ideals of education throughout the South, and Chancellor Kirkland of Vanderbilt, the inspirer and organizer of this powerful association, must have been gratified at this the most successful of its meetings.

An association could not have had a warmer welcome than that given by the chancellor and members of the faculty of the University of Mississippi, and one of the most hopeful signs was the large attendance of teachers from the public schools of the state.

PRESIDENT BUTLER'S first annual report to the trustees of Columbia University has created a mild sensation. The point that has attracted public interest and given the newspapers a chance to use their display type has reference to the suggestion that the A.B. degree be conferred at the end of the second year in college and the A.M. at the end of the fourth. President Butler explains that the high school is pressing up into the college, and in many cases is doing the work of the first two years of the college, the professional schools are pressing down into the college and claiming that the last two years should be given up to work that bears upon the professional ideal, and the college proper is threatened with extinction. He proposes therefore to fix the place of the high school with its four years' course, the college with its two years' course, and the professional school with its four years' course. The A.M. and Ph.D., the LL.B., the M.D. and B.D., mark the graduate in the professional schools of arts, law, medicine, and theology. The great objection that will be raised by many is that the degree of A.B. is being debased by being conferred at the end of only two years. To this President Butler answers that it means now at least twice as much as did the A.B. of our grandfathers, and that even as it is there is no uniform significance to this degree in America. It does not mean four years of college residence, and the degrees of no two colleges mean the same thing. Therefore something ought to be done whereby definiteness and increasing uniformity might be brought into this degree.

From another standpoint the president comes to the same conclusion.

He asks us to agree that there is waste in education—and who will deny it? It is not in the high school with its four years' course—that is short enough for the great work; it cannot be in the professional schools, for they have just lengthened their term. There remain two places where there seems to be waste—the elementary school and the college. That there is a waste in elementary education, that the work now done in eight years can be done in six without overstraining, will be acknowledged by almost every educator. The other place is in the college, and it is with a view to remedying this waste that the president has suggested this plan. The work in this two years' course would be heavier and more concentrated, and Mr. Butler suggests that it ought to contain work in English, mathematics, Latin, one modern language, one experimental science, economics and philosophy. It remains therefore that for those who are preparing for professorships and for expert service in other ways there will be the four busy college years with the degree of A.M. at their close; for those who propose to enter the professions of medicine, law, theology, etc., there are two college years followed by three or four years of technical or professional study. That such a plan as this is not a new thing, but has been in the making for some time, we can see from the certificate of Associate in Arts granted by the University of Chicago at the end of the sophomore year and which admits to the medical and to the law schools. This plan will doubtless give rise to some interesting discussions, and our readers should have before them a clear picture of what is desired. If President Butler had his way, it is likely we should have graduation from the grammar grades at twelve, from the high school at sixteen, from the college at eighteen, and from the university at twenty-two. This seems possible, and perhaps desirable.

ONE of the most interesting and practical contributions to the discussion which followed Professor Tyler's address on "How Shall We Adapt Our System of Education to Present Needs,"¹ was made by Mr.

THE HIGH SCHOOL
AND THE
PLAYGROUND

William Orr, principal of the high school at Springfield, Mass. He outlined the plan followed in his school in the matter of physical development of boys, as follows: Every boy in the

school reports twice a week at the gymnasium for the simpler forms of what is known as the setting up exercises, to correct defects in posture, breathing, walking, sitting, and standing—an exercise somewhat analogous to that through which recruits are put in training for military service, but by no means as rigid. After that, for ten or fifteen minutes the boys are allowed some active play, and he believes the all-around benefit is much greater from such play than from any rigid, prescribed form of military exercise. This further description of the teacher, his relationship to the boys on the athletic field, and the results upon the more definitely intellectual work at the school, are very suggestive, but specially applicable to the situation

¹ See page 742.

in almost all our high schools, are his remarks in regard to the relationship existing between the school building and the playground. He regrets that, while there is in Springfield a \$400,000 building, there is but a \$10 playground. Situated in a quiet New England city, with a prejudice against playing in the street—the only available place—he finds it impossible to provide the boys with a natural outlet for the exuberance of their youth. Walking for health's sake is a melancholy thing, but no more so than the strictly prescribed physical exercise, measured out in minute fashion after the tabloid form, and he longs for the playground in connection with the school, where the boy can go, heart, soul, body, mind, and spirit, into a game, forgetting all about himself, and both the idea of standing up with his fellows, and being a man among them. This is a vital question, and Mr. Orr will find many sympathizers among the principals of our high schools, to whom the subject of physical training, with its corollaries of inter-scholastic contests and deficient moral ideas, is a vexing problem.

THERE is no state in the Union that has been evincing such an interest in education during the past year as the "Mother of Presidents." The meeting of the Constitutional Convention made it necessary that the educational interests should be thoroughly investigated and the best parts conserved. This discussion has borne fruit and one of the best and most statesmanlike utterances has just been made by Professor Paul B. Barringer, chairman of the faculty of the University of Virginia. The opening and the closing paragraphs are specially interesting and will give our readers a fairly adequate idea of the prospects for better higher education in Virginia. Mr. Barringer said :

*THE HIGH SCHOOL
IN VIRGINIA*

I take the position regarding the public schools of Virginia that there is but one course that can offer hope for this state, and that is a complete, general non-sectarian system of education, such as was proposed by Mr. Jefferson one hundred and twenty-five years ago—a system of elementary schools, a complete system of public high schools or academies, and a university. This is exactly the system which has made the states of the North and West what they are today in wealth and power, and it has been the lack of such an educational machine that has caused Virginia to drop from her one-time position of primacy in wealth and influence to the position which she now occupies—some twenty-five from the top in a total of forty-five states.

The question is: How can we make the public-school system of the state a whole—a unit? In answer I would say, by the creation in every county of a rural public high school. The country is the place to rear boys. It is better from the standpoint of health, of morals, and of economy. These high schools will give a stimulus to every common school in the county. Boys who previously looked forward to nothing more than the "three R's" will look forward to and strive for a high-school education. For a majority of the callings in life a good high-school education is all that is needed; but for those chosen spirits that show in the high school unusual capacity the university will stand ready.

The University of Virginia, on its part, should make provision to give every graduate of every public high school in the state absolutely free tuition. This can be

done for less than ten thousand dollars a year—a sum that would run the public schools of the state but a few hours. In other words, I believe in changing the university to fit the public schools, and changing the public schools to fit the university. Let us have an organic connection throughout the whole, so that a stimulus applied at any part will be felt throughout the entire system. When this is done, Virginia will once more take her natural place in the galaxy of states, and will prosper as she has never prospered before. The spirit of Jefferson is here, and here will come the strong, the virile, and the free—the university will shine as a city hat is set upon a hill, and all things will turn toward the light.

BOOK REVIEWS

SOME RECENT PUBLICATIONS ON CIVICS.

The Government. By S. S. CLARK. Pp. 304. American Book Company.

MR. CLARK'S book has some distinctive features. Among these may be mentioned the pictorial aids at the beginning of each chapter, and the use of different sized type to illustrate the relative importance of the different work done by the government.

In the introduction the author shows clearly what government means—its composition and tools; passes to a discussion of ten things that government can, and eight things that it cannot do; treats in order self-government, officers, courts, legislature, and political parties; introduces some simple elements of international and business law; and, in the appendix, gives an outline sketch of the chief governments of the world.

The author is particularly happy in some of his discussions. He shows that ours is a government of laws and not of men (p. 43); that internal revenue is a tax based on luxuries (p. 80); that some taxes are laid for the encouragement of business and some for the discouragement of business (p. 82); that a bill of rights in the American sense is the people protecting themselves against their own elected legislature (p. 111); that the development of the township in the West is a counter tendency to the late growth toward centralization (p. 135); that political parties in Great Britain and the United States are based on principles, in a despotism on plots against the ruler, in South America on adherence to some ambitious man (p. 218); finally, that self-government, to be real self-government, requires a people intelligent, educated, independent and under self-control (p. 269).

There is not much to criticise adversely. On page 101 the author leaves the reader to infer that we make no use of the "referendum." Such is not the case. Again, on page 120, the text says that an amendment to the Constitution of the United States must first be passed by Congress. This is the method that has always been used; but the other possibilities should have been indicated (*Const., Art. V*).

The three hundred pages are crowded with useful, teachable, up-to-date information about our governmental institutions. The author uses the comparative method to good advantage; and our institutions do not suffer by the comparison with European institutions.

Training for Citizenship. By JOSEPH WARREN SMITH. Pp. 344. Lothrop Publishing Company. Price 90 cents.

THE aim of the author, as stated in the preface, is to cultivate a new field, viz.: a thorough discussion of the Constitution of the United States and the principles of law, with the social point of view back of both.

Part I deals with elementary principles—and the school and home. The chapter on individual rights deals with an exploded theory of political philosophy, while the section on the police power should be expanded, or omitted, as it is inadequate in its

present form. The chapter on "Infancy to Manhood" is transitional, but is sound in exposition and pedagogy.

Part II treats the township in too great detail, there being thirteen chapters devoted to it. Some few years ago all that could be found in a book on Civics was a dry analysis of the Constitution of the United States, with little or no reference to the state and its various subdivisions. That the pendulum has swung to the other extreme is evident in the book under review. The author's comparison of township and county units is one of the best the reviewer has ever read (pp. 65, 66).

Part III is devoted to the village, city, and county governments. Chapter xix on "Formative Influences," has no organic relation with what immediately follows. The chapter on "Territories" does not logically belong to this division, but shows a keen insight (pp. 192-6).

Parts III and IV deal with the state and national governments, respectively—five chapters to the first, and six to the second. Here is a characteristic sentence: "The Constitution of the state is not a document conferring defined and specified powers on the legislature, but one regulating and limiting the unlimited power which it would otherwise possess." The author impresses on the reader's mind the idea that the state is a combination of counties, as, he says, the counties are combinations of townships. This is confusing, as there are states where the township does not exist. The statement grows out of the author's emphasis on the idea of local government. The state should receive more attention, as the local government units are only organs of the state.

The author makes some peculiar errors. Discussing the compromise on apportionment of representatives and direct taxes, he says that two-thirds of the slaves were counted. This should be three-fifths (p. 248). He says that the "Planting States of the South" wanted a tax on exports. This is incorrect (see Fiske, *Critical Period*, p. 264). Discussing the treaty-making power, he states that the House may act as a check (p. 255); but the reader only finds out how after reading an additional twenty pages. The section on "International Law" should be expanded. The sentence, "a Senator must have been a citizen of the United States for nine years immediately preceding his election," is wrong. The word "immediately" is not needed. A revision will entirely eliminate these inaccuracies.

The author is a lawyer and has been a superintendent of schools—unusual qualifications for writing a book on Civics. The result is a strong presentation of his subject, especially on the legal side.

JEREMIAH S. YOUNG.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL,
Mankato, Minnesota.

Studies of Animal Life. By WALTER, WHITNEY, and LUCAS. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

THIS book is intended as a laboratory guide for students in secondary schools and makes no claim to be a text-book of zoölogy. A careful use of this guide will give pupils a fairly good idea of the animal kingdom. It is based on the plan of introducing the student first to the lowest, and therefore the least familiar forms of animal life, the one-celled animals, and leading him through the lower to the more complex up to the highest forms. This is the logical method of zoölogical teaching for the adult mind, but the opinions and practice of teachers differ in this particular

with immature minds. There are those who prefer studying the more familiar first and after the various forms of life in the different families of the animal world have been studied to sum up by beginning with the single-celled amoeba and tracing developmental lines to higher forms. For such teachers this book would have very little interest.

The authors say in their preface "As the title indicates, the subject-matter of this book is animal life and not animal forms, the authors' point of view being to study living animals and to interpret their activities, so far as possible, instead of compiling a series of obituaries." This is good doctrine but scarcely possible to live up to if one would give in a single year a fair knowledge of the animal kingdom. An illustration of their departure from their own principle is well shown in their excellent treatment of the starfish and sea-urchin. Some of the points studied must be shown by dead specimens. On page 40, the development of an echinoderm is taken up and the young student is asked to identify and draw (1) the egg, (2) the two-celled stage, (3) the four-celled stage, etc., up to the larva form. This study can scarcely be made by young students from the living specimens, as they are difficult problems even for adult students in the college laboratories. The wisdom of introducing these topics is not called in question, but only the assertion in the preface that the pupils are studying animal life and not animal obituaries.

We doubt if anything is gained by asking pupils of secondary schools to spend time making clay models of their idea of a cell or of an amoeba. When skill with pencil and language are such general accomplishments, expression in clay of such simple forms seems wholly unnecessary and to be a reversion to kindergarten days. Making a clay model of a sponge seems to serve no useful purpose.

To quote again from the preface "It is far more important to make naturalists of such pupils than anatomists, consequently all laboratory dissection is omitted." On page 31 we find H. Internal Structure. Anatomy. 1. In a thick cross-section of the body of the earth-worm observe" — etc.; and under 4, the directions are to use a specimen which has the dorsal body wall removed. If this isn't study of anatomy and dissection, what is it? Similar methods are pursued with the crayfish, the clam, the snail and the frog.

But in spite of the failure to carry out their principles in practice the book is a very good laboratory manual and full of good suggestions that require the pupil to do his own thinking. The different type animals studied are viewed systematically and advice for their observation given in very simple directions. It is a very good book for use by those who believe in treating the lower organisms first.

C. H. MORSS.

Medford, Mass.

The Boy Problem. A Study in Social Pedagogy. By WILLIAM BYRON FORBUSH. With an introduction by G. Stanley Hall. Chicago: Pilgrim Press, 1902. Pp. 197. Price 75 cents.

THIS new and revised edition in attractive form of a little book already favorably known will be welcomed by all interested in special work for boys and could be read with profit by many teachers of the upper grades and early high-school years.

In the life of every boy, the author points out in his preface, comes a time when his developing social instinct coupled with the rise of a spirit of independence tends to lead him away from the bounds set by home and school and causes him to seek the

freer social life of the street or, it may be, of the "gang." How to utilize this instinct so as to conserve the highest interests of the boy rather than to check it or to have its satisfaction result in injury is the "problem." Stated differently the problem consists in how to provide in social form wholesome agencies for boys in the period of early adolescence.

In his attempt at a solution Dr. Forbush first gives a survey of some of the leading facts of boy life, particularly of the adolescent period, the study of which considering its immense importance is essential to one who would be of any help to boys. "Other things being equal, the best way to help a boy is to understand him."

Proceeding upon an account of the rise of the instinct that seeks social companionship, the author gives interesting statistics concerning definite organizations set on foot and maintained by boys themselves. He then passes to a fuller discussion of the numerous organizations formed for boys by adults, throwing emphasis upon those features that most attract and hold. In this connection such societies as the Junior Christian Endeavor are criticised on the ground that the methods employed are those adapted to older persons and not to the normally active, non-introspective boy. Many practical suggestions are made also concerning the function of the Sunday school in its relation to the boy problem and concerning the various activities in the interest of boys that could be carried on to advantage by the different churches. In the course of general suggestions much is made of the necessity of providing in a wholesome way for physical expression on the part of boys through plays and games, gymnastics, handwork of various kinds, camp life, country tours, etc.

At the close of the book is a valuable directory of social organizations for boys, and a full bibliography of books and pamphlets dealing with boys and social work among them, included in which are references to the best available material on the the period of adolescence.

H. C. HENDERSON.

THE NORMAL SCHOOL,
Milwaukee, Wis.

P. Terenti Afri Andria. With Introduction and Notes. By H. R. FAIRCLOUGH. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1901.

Juvenal. Edited, with Introduction, Notes on Thirteen Satires, and Indices. By HENRY PARKS WRIGHT. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1901.

The Conspiracy of Catiline, as Related by Sallust. By ALLEN and GREENOUGH. Revised by J. B. GREENOUGH and M. G. DANIELL. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1901.

Writing Latin. Book I—Second Year Work. By JOHN EDMUND BARSS. New York: University Publishing Co., 1902.

MR. FAIRCLOUGH'S edition is dedicated to Professor Minton Warren, *optime de Terentio merito*, and is, ultimately at least, one of the many products of the Johns Hopkins Latin Seminar. It shows the rare combination of literary appreciation and philological acumen. Instead of the jejune disquisitions that fill the first pages of so many of our text-books, the intent of which seems to be a justification of the editor's scholarship but the only result an initial discouragement of the unhappy reader, we have in this edition a sketch of the development of Roman comedy, which in itself raises the book

above the level of the ordinary college text-book. The elements of a nature drama, the literary awakening of Rome, the use of Greek models, the characteristic features of the Roman playwrights—these are some of the subjects treated. Other sections deal with the plot and characters of the *Andria*, modern adaptations of it, the actors and their costumes, the theater and conditions of representation. Pp. 61-71 are devoted to a discussion of the meters and the musical accompaniment. The variant readings are wisely confined in an appendix.

The edition of Juvenal by Mr. Wright is published under the auspices of the "College Series of Latin Authors." That there has been need of a good edition of *Juvenal* can hardly be disputed, and not even the most captious of critics could claim that the great satirist belongs to that wofully large class of Latin authors, new editions of whose works in red, brown, or green, according to the æsthetic standards of the particular series, are continually pouring from the press, the *raison d'être* of which can be found only in that catholicity of spirit by which the modern publisher seems to be actuated, and which causes him to look for almost any possible surcease of the sorrow which the contemplation of a gap in his serial representation of classical literature causes. An examination of the edition before us does not, however, lead us to the belief that this need no longer exists. It does, of course, go without saying that the almost uniform excellence of the books of this series and the name of the edition of this particular one are a sufficient guarantee that what has been attempted has been satisfactorily done. But not very much has been attempted. It seems fairly reasonable to hold that unless a college student carries away from a course in Juvenal some impression of the satirist's attitude toward society, some realization of the morals of the age, some appreciation of Juvenal's place in the history of satire, and of his influence upon its subsequent development, he might just as well not have studied Juvenal at all. Results of the kind indicated, it may be claimed, depend more upon the efforts of the instructor than upon the text-book in the hands of the students, but, while this is true, it is equally true that an edition equipped with an introductory essay containing something more than a series of scrappy paragraphs, and with notes that give more than traditional exegesis, can do much toward the desired end.

The revision of Allen and Greenough's edition of Sallust's *Catiline* differs from its predecessor in several respects: long quantities are marked throughout, the notes have been entirely rewritten, and a vocabulary has been added. It is a good revision of a good book.

The results of the meretricious method of teaching Latin prose composition by means of exercises based exclusively on the author being read in the class would seem to justify us in the belief that the old way of teaching this subject is the best way, and that grammatical principles are most successfully inculcated by exercises consisting of separate sentences upon specific syntactical topics. This is the plan upon which Mr. Barss's book is constructed, even the exercises based on Cæsar (which must be regarded more or less as a concession to the enemy) being connected with the definite topics of the main series. Any college instructor, who has for his sins to read freshman exercises, will welcome a sign of the return of the older method, under which there is at any rate a possibility that the license in syntax, by which every doubtful subjunctive is called potential, every doubtful dative ethical, and the wantonness in forms, which annihilates all distinctions of declension, will show some diminution. The book is a skilful piece of work—concise, practical, definite in aim; and it is safe to predict for

it the same success as has already attended the Gildersleeve-Lodge *Advanced Latin Prose Composition* in the same series.

GORDON LAING.

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

School Chemistry. By BASKERVILLE. Pp. 159. Richmond, Va.: B. F. Johnson Publishing Company,

THIS volume is an attempt to place before high-school pupils, who otherwise would learn nothing of the subject, the more common phenomena of chemistry. The course occupies forty hours, eighteen of which are devoted to experimentation. The book cannot be taken as a serious treatment of the subject even for high schools, for the time devoted to it and the methods employed will not result in a scientific attitude of the mind, but only in the accumulation of facts empirically learned. What the author attempts, however, has been developed in an interesting way, and the book can be commended when only very short and elementary courses are possible.

JAMES H. RANSOM.

PURDUE UNIVERSITY.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

[The notice here given does not preclude the publishing of a comprehensive review of any of these books.]

Applied English Grammar. By Edwin Herbert Lewis. Size $5\frac{1}{2} \times 7$. Pp. 363. Price 50 cents. New York: The Macmillan Co.

The writer holds with those who believe that a little technical grammar, sympathetically taught, is within the normal powers and interests of grammar-school students. In this book he is consistent with his belief but the emphasis upon formal grammar is not too great. It is a distinctly usable book.

Essentials of English Composition. By Horace S. Tarbell and Martha Tarbell. Size 5×7 . Pp. xi + 281. Mailing price 70 cents. Boston: Ginn & Co.

This book is designed for grammar schools and the lower classes in high schools. Opening at random one thinks he is reading Edward Bok's famous journal as the exercise on p. 61 reads: "A young friend wishes to know what he should do with his hat, overcoat, umbrella, and gloves when making a call; when he should precede a lady; and how he should give introductions. Write a set of directions for him upon these questions of polite conduct." Presumably there will be some supplementary reading to be done by the average teacher as well as by the pupil.

Interpretive Reading. By Cora Marsland. Size $5\frac{1}{2} \times 7$. Pp. 245. Price \$1.00. New York: Longmans, Green & Co.

This is designed by the author as a text-book on reading and speaking in colleges, normal schools, and secondary schools.

Foundation Lessons in English Language and Grammar. By O. I. and M. S. Woodley and G. R. Carpenter. Size $6 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$. Pp. 166. Price 65 cents. New York: The Macmillan Co.

Graded Lessons in Letter Writing and Business Forms. Books I-III. Size $7\frac{1}{2} \times 10$. Pp. 30. Price \$1.25 per doz. Boston: Ginn & Co.

These ought to be very useful in the grammar grades. If a boy has mastered the significance of these forms he will enter a business house with the degree of intelligence which an ordinary business man desires.

Translations from Old English Poetry. Edited by A. S. Cook and C. B. Tinker. Size $5 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$. Pp. 195. Price \$1.00. Boston: Ginn & Co.

This is a valuable work. Hitherto the old English poetry has been practically unknown except to the specialist. This book ought to be in the library of every high school.

Shakespeare's As You Like It. Edited by C. R. Gaston. Size $4\frac{1}{2} \times 5\frac{1}{2}$. Pp. 195. Price 25 cents. New York: The Macmillan Co.

This series in its handy shape and good type always gives pleasure, and the title of Shakespeare's charming comedy seems singularly appropriate.

The Writing of the Short Story. By L. W. Smith. Size $5\frac{1}{2} \times 7\frac{1}{2}$. Pp. 36. Price 35 cents. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

This interesting and suggestive monograph is the result of experiment with a freshman class. To some of us who at times read short stories it seems appropriate that the book which heads the list of those that may "profitably be consulted" is "The Education of the Central Nervous System."

Early American Orations 1760-1824. Edited by Louie R. Heller. Size $4\frac{1}{2} \times 5\frac{1}{2}$. Pp. 200. Price 25 cents. New York: The Macmillan Co.

A very interesting collection of orations with just the right sort of prefatory notes.

Shelley's Adonais and Alastor. Edited by Charles G. D. Roberts. Size 5×7 . Pp. 108. Price 35 cents. Chicago: Silver, Burdett & Co.

The editor says that "the excellences of sincerity, singleness of aim, dignity, and beauty of thought and diction, unflagging imagination and lofty ideality" in these poems have led him to undertake the work of bringing them to the notice of girls and boys.

Everyday English, Book I, Language Lessons for Intermediate Grades. By Jean Sherwood Rankin. Size $6 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$. Pp. 232. Price —. Chicago: Educational Publishing Co.

This book is full of hints for the teacher in the lower grades who recognizes that the study of grammar is necessary, but who hesitates about the method by which it can best be taught. The teacher who hesitates generally falls back upon the old, dry, formal way, and the children suffer the time-honored tortures of the grammar lesson. Such a teacher will be helped by the perusal of this book.

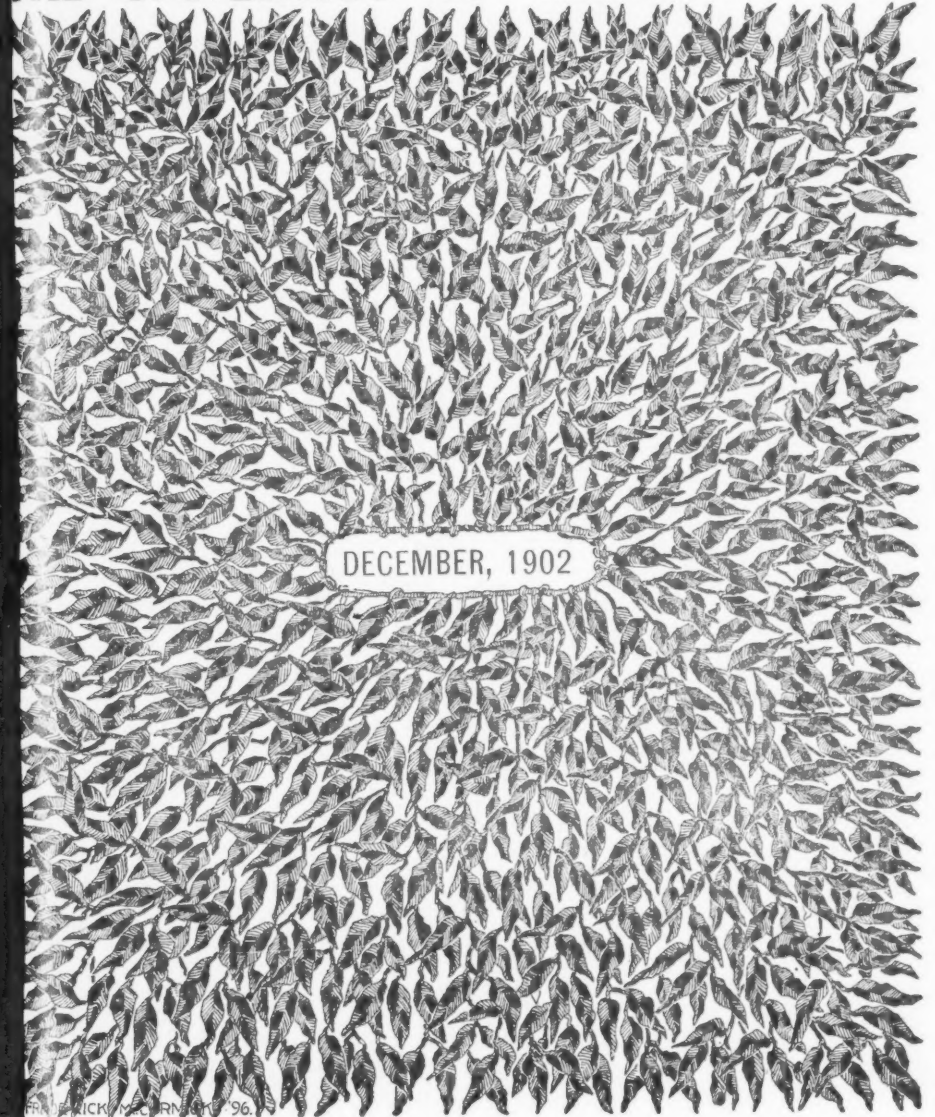
How to Study Literature. By Benjamin A. Heydrick. Size $5 \times 6\frac{1}{2}$. Pp. 118. Price 75 cents. New York: Hinds & Noble.

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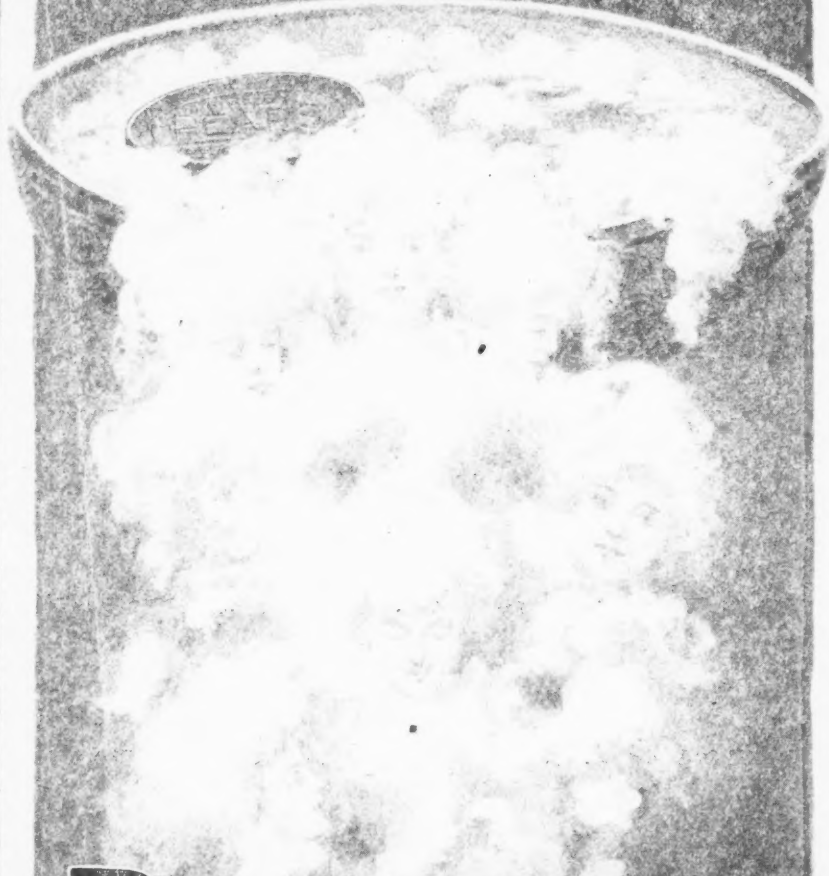
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A Journal of Secondary Education

EDITED BY THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

JOHN DEWEY, *Director*

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and among its contributors from the Colleges and Universities were: President Hadley of Yale, Professors Tyler of Amherst, Thorndike of Columbia, Knight of Ohio, Moore of Vanderbilt, Babbitt of the University of the South, Dewey of Chicago, Hooker of Vassar, Edwards of Olivet, Townsend of Illinois, Sutton of Texas, Richardson of California, Mead of Wesleyan, Hart of Wellesley, Sanders of Michigan, Jacobs of Brown, and Johnston of Indiana.

Secondary Schools were represented by contributors from the Public High Schools, Normal Schools and Private Schools in the states of Massachusetts, Connecticut, Vermont, New York, Rhode Island, Ohio, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Colorado, Iowa, Tennessee.

Our Foreign Correspondents during the year were Mr. William K. Hill of the University of London, Mr. Foster Watson of University College, Wales, Mr. Albert Heinig of Freiberg, and Mr. Oscar Thiergen of the Royal Cadet College, Dresden.

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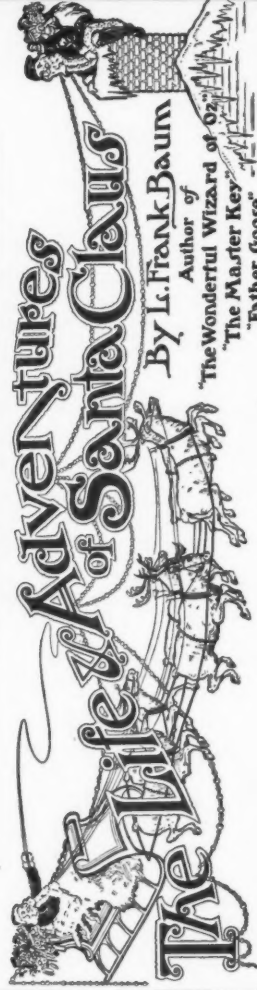
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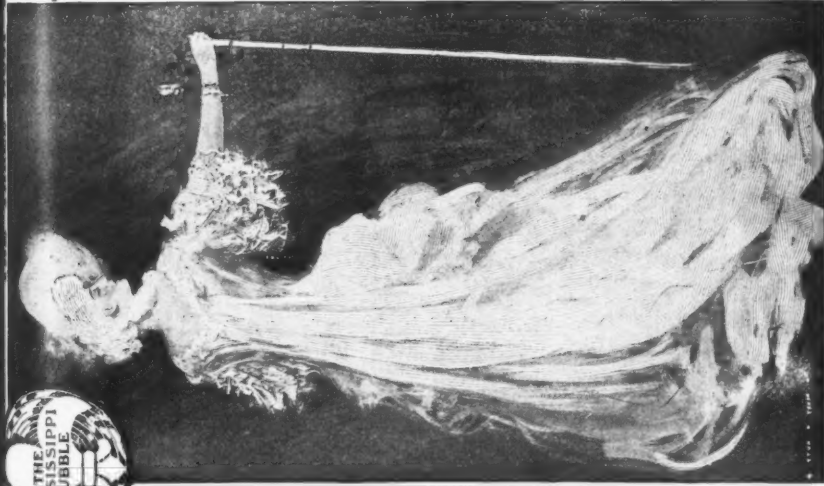
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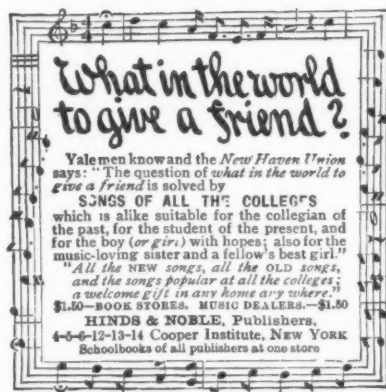
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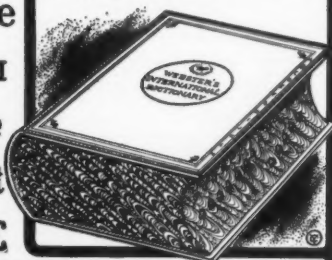
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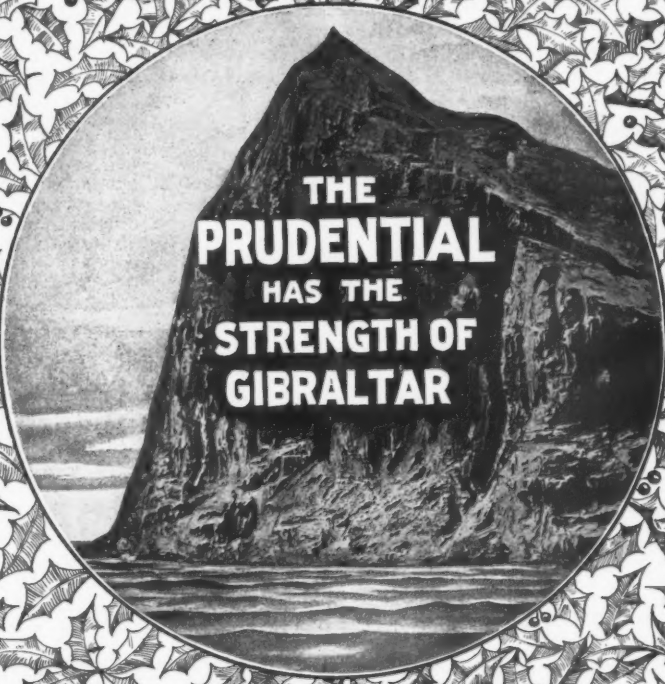
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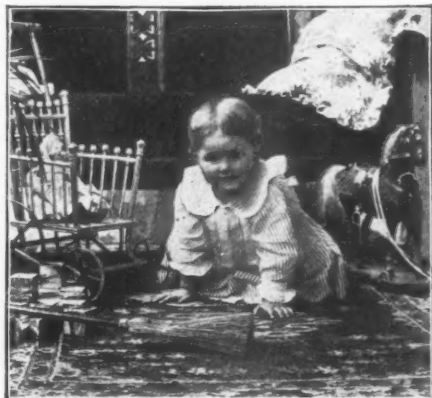
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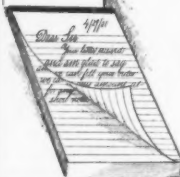
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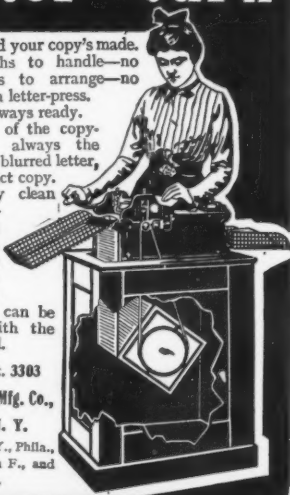
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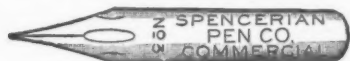
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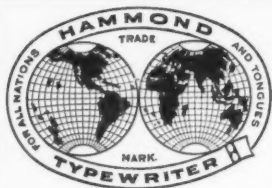
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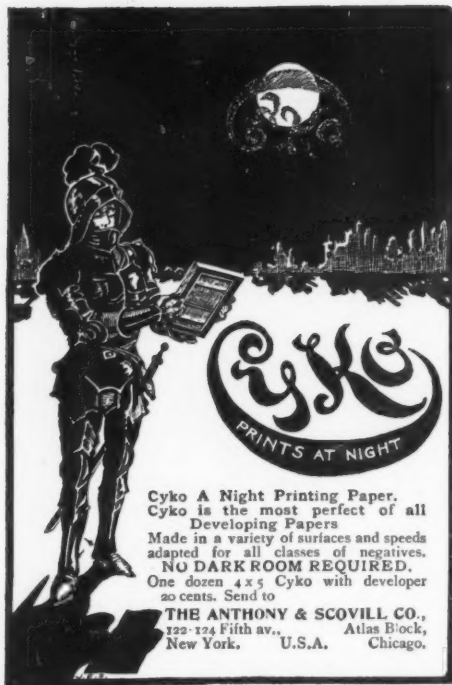
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